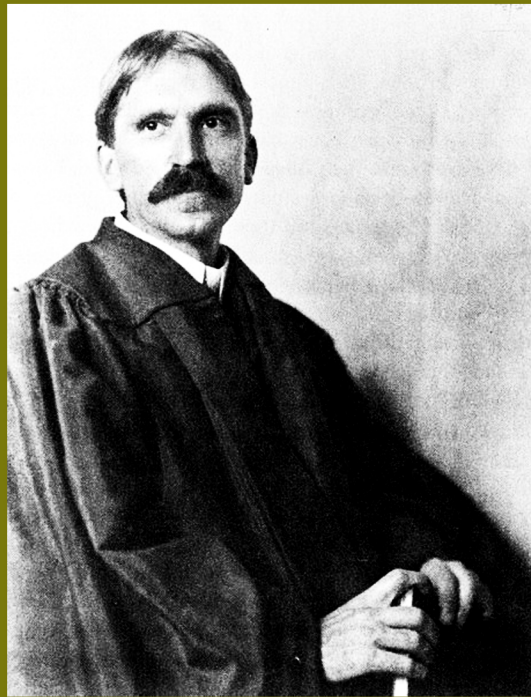




The International Journal of
INDIAN PSYCHOLOGY

Person of the Issue



John Dewey (1859-1952)

Editor in Chief:
Dr. Suresh M. Makvana
Editor:
Mr. Ankit P. Patel





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Co-Editor

Mr. Ankit P. Patel

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Message from Editorial Board

The journey from October 2013 to October 2014 has been really amazing. Our experience so far has been extremely rewarding and we got to know many new writers, researchers and their creations. We received a lot of love from readers and writers for our Volume 1 of the journal. Due to your overwhelming response the International Journal of Indian Psychology was chosen in a survey by the Directory of Science to be ranked among many other such academic journals and we received a score of 19.67; claiming the first position of all the other journals throughout the world. For this, the IJIP team cannot thank you enough.

Now IJIP has entered its second phase. This includes the beginning of the Volume 2. With the change in Volume, some of the policies of our journal and its format have also changed a bit. We hope that these changes are up to your expectations and that they will not disappoint you.

We wish to congratulate all the people who have published their literature in the Volume 2, Issue 1, no. 4. We hope that your experience with IJIP has been fruitful and worthwhile.

Furthermore we would like to address the readers that the upcoming issues will contain a lot more literature for which you have been waiting for so long.

Thanking one and all,

Dr. Suresh Makvana,

Mr. Ankit Patel

And whole Team

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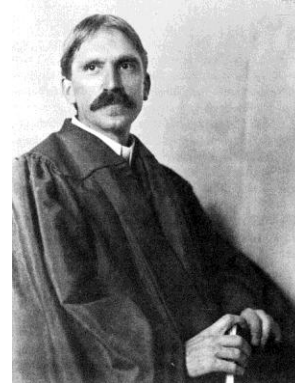


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Person of the Issue: John Dewey (1859-1952)

Ankit Patel*

Born	October 20, 1859 Burlington, Vermont, United States
Died	June 1, 1952 (aged 92) New York, United States
Alma mater	University of Vermont, Johns Hopkins University
Religion	Western Philosophy
Era	20th-century philosophy
School	Pragmatism
Main interests	Philosophy of education, Epistemology, Journalism, Ethics



John Dewey (October 20, 1859 – June 1, 1952) was an American philosopher, psychologist, and educational reformer whose ideas have been influential in education and social reform. Dewey is one of the primary figures associated with philosophy of pragmatism and is considered one of the founders of functional psychology. A well-known public intellectual, he was also a major voice of progressive education and liberalism. Although Dewey is known best for his publications about education, he also wrote about many other topics, including epistemology, metaphysics, aesthetics, art, logic, social theory, and ethics.

John Dewey graduated from the University of Vermont and spent three years as a high school teacher in Oil City, Pennsylvania. He then spent a year studying under the guidance of G. Stanley Hall at John Hopkins University in America's first psychology lab. After earning his Ph.D. from John Hopkins, Dewey went on to teach at the University of Michigan for nearly a decade.

In 1894, Dewey accepted a position as the chairman of the department of philosophy, psychology and pedagogy at the University of Chicago. It was at the University of Chicago that Dewey began to formalize his views that would contribute so heavily to the school of thought known as pragmatism. The central tenant of pragmatism is that the value, truth or meaning of an idea lies in its practical consequences. Dewey also helped establish the University of Chicago Laboratory Schools, where he was able to directly his apply his pedagogical theories.

Dewey eventually left the University of Chicago and became a professor of philosophy at Columbia University from 1904 until his retirement in 1930. In 1905, he became President of the American Psychological Association.

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Person of the Issue John Dewey (1859-1952)

Dewey's work had a vital influence on psychology, education and philosophy and he is often considered one of the greatest thinkers of the 20th-century. His emphasis on progressive education has contributed greatly to the use of experimentation rather than an authoritarian approach to knowledge. Dewey was also a prolific writer, publishing numerous books and articles on a wide range of subjects including education, art, nature, philosophy, ethics and democracy over his 65-year writing career.

TIME LINE

1. October 20, 1859 - John Dewey born at 186 South Willard Street, Burlington, Vt. His father, Archibald Sprague, was thriving in the grocer business and his mother Lucina Artemisia Rich was a devote Christian.
2. November 24, 1859 - Charles Darwin publishes *On the Origin of the Species*. In 1910 Dewey would publish the influential text, *Influence of Darwin on Philosophy and Other Essays*. New York: Henry Holt and Company (1910).
3. 1865 - Lee surrenders to Grant at Appomattox Court House on April 9, 1865, ending the Civil War. The 13th Amendment ends slavery.
4. 1879 - After studying with H.A.P. Torrey, who mentored Dewey in moral philosophy, Dewey graduates from the University of Vermont, Phi Beta Kappa.
5. 1882 - Journal of Speculative Philosophy published Dewey's first articles; "The Metaphysical Assumptions of Materialism" and "The Pantheism of Spinoza." Dewey decides to make philosophy his life pursuit.
6. 1884 - Dewey graduates with a doctoral degree from John Hopkins University after studying with Charles S. Pierce and George Sylvester Morris.
7. 1884 - Dewey hired as Associate Professor at University of Michigan and works with George Morris on Hegelianism.
8. 1886 - Dewey marries Alice Chipman. Dewey takes the position of the Head of the Philosophy Department at the University of Chicago which included the disciplines of psychology and pedagogy.
9. 1894 Dewey's two and a half year old son Morris dies of diphtheria in Italy.
10. 1897 - Guglielmo Marconi takes the radio, his invention, to the Wireless Telegraph and Signal Company Ltd. in London.
11. 1899 - Dewey elected President of the American Psychological Association and The School and Society, which had been a series of lectures, was published.
12. 1902 - Dewey founds the school of education at the University of Chicago. The University elementary and high schools became known as the Laboratory Schools.
13. 1904 - Dewey leaves Chicago and takes the position of Professor of Philosophy and Lectureship in Psychology at Columbia University.
14. 1910 - William James, one of the great American philosophers of pragmatism, dies.
15. 1904 - Dewey's son Gordon dies at the age of eight of typhoid fever in Ireland.
16. 1912 - Dewey argues that women's suffrage is necessary to complete the democratic movement. Dewey addresses the summer students at Columbia on women's suffrage.
17. 1912 - Emperor P'u Yi steps down from the Dragon Throne of the Manchu's. Doctor Sun Yatsen helps lead the revolution which had begun the year before in Sichuan province.
18. 1914 - Archduke Franz Ferdinand assassinated leading to World War I.

Person of the Issue John Dewey (1859-1952)

19. 1915 - Dewey presents a series of lectures for the John Calvin McNair Foundation at the University of North Carolina in February under the title "German Philosophy and Politics."
20. 1918-1919 - Dewey takes a leave from Columbia University and spends the first half of the winter lecturing at the University of California. Dewey then travels with Alice to China and Japan.
21. 1918 - President Wilson announces his famous Fourteen Points to a joint session of Congress on January 8, 1918. His speech laid the groundwork for the end of WWI.
22. 1920 - Dewey lectures at the Imperial University in Tokyo and then at National University in Peking. The Chinese lectures, published in Chinese, are now available in an English: John Dewey: Lectures in China 1919 - 1920.
23. August 18, 1920 - the Nineteenth Amendment is ratified giving women the right to vote.
24. 1924 - Dewey travels to Turkey by the invitation of the Turkish government for educational system reform.
25. 1925 - Experience and Nature published and Dewey's metaphysical philosophy attempts to dissolve past mind/body dualities.
26. 1926 - Alfred Barnes takes Dewey along with a group of students to the museums of Madrid, Paris, and Vienna.
27. July 14, 1927 - Alice Dewey dies in New York City. During her life Alice had profound influence on Dewey's philosophy of education.
28. 1930 - Dewey retires from Columbia and named Professor Emeritus.
29. 1931 - Dewey's infant granddaughter dies. Additionally, George H. Mead dies. Mead and Dewey along with colleagues James H. Tufts, James R. Angell, and Edward Scribner Ames formed the core of the Chicago School of Pragmatism.
30. 1932 - Immigrant Adolf Hitler gains German citizenship. The German physicist Albert Einstein is granted a visa to the United States.
31. 1933 - Dewey works to socialize government programs during the Depression years.
32. 1933 - Franklin D. Roosevelt inaugurated president. Advent of New Deal politics.
33. 1934 - Art as Experience is published. Dewey dedicates the book to Alfred Barnes. Dewey's thirteen year old grandson dies.
34. 1935 - The John Dewey Society is founded, dedicated to the study of school and society. Dewey publishes Liberalism and Social Action, a product of a series of lectures given at the University of Virginia.
35. 1937 - Dewey endorsed the Neutrality Act thinking that war would delay his social programs.
36. 1937 - Leon Trotsky charged with sedition against Stalin. In exile, Trotsky requested an impartial hearing and the American Committee for the defense of Leon Trotsky was formed. Dewey presided over the hearing as Honorary Chairman.
37. 1939 - Dr. Tsume-ch Yu, Chinese Consul General bestowed upon Dewey and Nicholas Murray Butler of Columbia the decoration of the Order of the Jade.
38. 1939 - Dewey changes his mind on the war and realizes that totalitarianism was a grave threat to the survival of democratic institutions in Europe. He publishes, "Higher Learning and the War" (American Association of University Professors Bulletin (Dec, 1939).
39. 1940 - Dewey, joined by Alfred North Whitehead, William P. Montague, and Curt John Ducasse, defended the scholarship of Bertrand Russell in New York City.
40. 1941 - The United States enters WWII after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor.

Person of the Issue John Dewey (1859-1952)

41. 1945 - 1948 - Dewey works with Arthur F. Bentley on a cooperative venture resulting in a number of articles published in the "Journal of Philosophy."
42. 1945 - On August 6th and 9th, atomic bombs are dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki by the United States.
43. 1949 - Dewey's 90th birthday. Press releases from Canada, England, France, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, Israel, Mexico, Turkey, Japan, and India were sent to Dewey for his ninetieth birthday. Tributes to Dewey in the United States were extensive.
44. 1949 - The Soviet Union tests its first atomic bomb. William Faulkner wins the Nobel Prize for literature.
45. 1952 - Dewey dies of pneumonia at his apartment in New York City on June 1, 1952. Dewey cremated at Fresh Pond Crematory, Middle Village, Queens, NY.
46. 1952 - Sidney Hook publishes *Some Memories of John Dewey*.
47. 1965 - Official United States Dewey Stamp released commemorating the life and works of John Dewey.w

ACADEMIC AWARDS

- 1943: Copernican Citation
- 1946: Doctor "honoris causa" – University of Oslo
- 1946: Doctor "honoris causa" – University of Pennsylvania
- 1951: Doctor "honoris causa" – Yale University
- 1951: Doctor "honoris causa" – University of Rome

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Relationship of Love, Affect and Wellbeing

Dr. Thiyam Kiran Singh*, Aastha Dhingra**

ABSTRACT:

Love is more than a close friendship. It acts as a major facilitator of interpersonal relationship. Love is positive in nature and leaves a positive affect on every individual. An individual in love not only feels positive but spreads positivity around. They smile, be kind to other people, behave compassionately with everyone. If the person is happy then he is likely to be psychologically and emotionally healthy. The current study aimed at understanding the relationship between love, affect and wellbeing among young females aged between 20-25 years. The study reported a significant positive relationship between love and positive affect with the significant correlation of 0.29 at 0.05 levels ($p < 0.05$). It was also found a significant positive relationship between love and wellbeing with the significant correlation of 0.58 at 0.01 level ($p < 0.01$). This means that people in love experience positive emotions and healthy wellbeing. The correlation between love and negative affect came out to be insignificant. The correlation turned out to be -0.13. This means that people in love do not experience negative emotions.

Keywords: Love, Well being, Affect, Relationship.

INTRODUCTION

Love is definitely something more than a close friendship and something different from merely being romantically or sexually interested in another person (Beall and Sternberg, 1995) but there is reason to believe that the basic phenomenon called that love is universal (Hatfield and Rapson 1993). According to Hatfield and Walster (1981) passionate love requires the presence of three factors. First, learn about love, second, an appropriate love object must be present like a physically attracted person of an opposite sex who is not currently married or otherwise attached. Third, the individual must be in a state of physiological arousal that can be interpreted as the emotion of love. Love makes our life meaningful. People maintain their relationship only because of love. When talking about love, there are many kinds like – love towards son or Daughter, love towards parents, love towards Friends, and love toward society and so on.

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Relationship of Love, Affect and Wellbeing

The society is existed because of love if love is not there the society might not be existed. Love provide us a sense of belongings, it makes our emotion a sense of secure and also gives a good mental health. Love refers to a variety of different feelings, states and attitudes, ranging from pleasure ("I loved that meal") to interpersonal attraction ("I love my partner"). "Love" may refer specifically to the passionate desire and intimacy of romantic love, to the sexual love of eros, to the emotional closeness of familial love, to the platonic love that defines friendship, or to the profound oneness or devotion of religious love or to a concept of love that encompasses all of those feelings. This diversity of uses and meanings combined with the complexity of the feelings involved makes love unusually difficult to consistently define compared to other emotional states. Love in its various forms acts as a major facilitator of interpersonal relationships and owing to its central psychological importance is one of the most common themes in the creative arts. Love may be understood as part of the survival instinct, a function to keep human beings together against menaces and to facilitate the continuation of the species. The present study is about the relationship of love, affection and wellbeing. The study highlight how a person should live and what are the benefits given by love in order to get a positive affection and wellbeing life. The present study will definitely help to live a healthy life with full of love to each other so as to get a positive affection and improve Psychological wellbeing.

OBJECTIVES:

- To study the relationship between love and positive affect
- To study the relationship between love and negative affect
- To study the relationship between love and psychological wellbeing

HYPOTHESIS:

- It is expected that the relation between love and positive affect will be significant.
- It is expected that the relation between love and negative affect will be significant
- It is expected that the relation between love and psychological wellbeing will be significant.

SAMPLE:

The sample comprising of 60 females of the age group from 20-25 were collected from various parts of North Delhi. The sample consisted of postgraduates and belonged to middle class family.

INCLUSION CRITERIA:

1. Female age between 20 to 25 years.
2. Those who are Post graduate.
3. Those who can give their consent for study.

EXCLUSION CRITERIA:

1. Female whose ages are below 20 or above 25 years.
2. Those whose education is less than 20 years.
3. Those who cannot give their consent for study.

TOOLS USED:

Rubin Love Scale (1970):

The tool consists of 13 items. Each item was to be responded on a continuum ranging from "Not at all true; disagree completely"(scored as 1) to "Definitely true; agree completely"(scored as 9). The love scale has high internal consistency. Coefficient alpha was .84 for women and .86 for men. The construct validity of the love scale has also been established.

Positive and Negative Affect Scale (PANAS):

The PANAS (Watson et al., 1988) consists of two 10-item mood scales and was developed to provide brief measures of PA and NA. The items were derived from a principal components analysis of Zevon and Tellegen (1982) mood checklist; it was argued that this checklist broadly tapped the affective lexicon. Respondents are asked to rate the extent to which they have experienced each particular emotion within a specified time period, with reference to a 5-point scale. The scale point is: 1 'very slightly or not at all', 2 'a little', 3 'moderately', 4 'quite a bit' and 5 'very much'. It is reliable on Test-retest reliability and item validity has been established.

The Scales of Psychological Well-being (Ryff, 1989):

The Scales of Psychological Well-being is a self-report scale designed to measure psychological well-being. The 84-item instrument consists of six subscales: (a) Autonomy, (b) Environmental mastery, (c) Personal growth, (d) Positive relationships with others, (e) Purpose in life, and (f) Self-acceptance. Each subscale consists of 14 items divided approximately equally between positive and negative items. Participants respond on a 6-point scale that ranges from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (6). Certain items are reverse coded. Scores are summed and subscale scores are obtained. The total score is the sum of the 84 items. Higher scores indicate higher psychological well-being within the respective dimension. The SPWB takes approximately twenty five minutes to complete. Test - retest reliability was assessed using a subset of the sample, 117 people, over six weeks; coefficients ranged from .81 to .85. In another study, the internal consistency reliability coefficients were .78 for autonomy, .77 for environmental mastery, .74 for personal growth, .83 for positive relationships with others, .76 for purpose in life, and .79 for self-acceptance. Test -retest reliability coefficients, over eight weeks, ranged from .74 to .84

Relationship of Love, Affect and Wellbeing

Procedure:

Total samples of 60 females were collected from North Delhi randomly whose age were between 20 to 25 and who can cooperate the study. They were given consent forms and also explain the purpose of study properly. Information about them were collected by using Love Scale, Positive and Negative Affect Scale and Scales of Psychological Well-being to find out their love, affect and Psychological wellbeing.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS:

Mean and Standard Deviation was calculated followed by the correlation of the variables.

RESULTS:

Table 1: Showing mean and standard deviation of love, affect and wellbeing

S.NO	Variables	Mean	S.D
1.	Love	82.45	24.74
2.	Positive Affect	37.06	4.94
3.	Negative Affect	15.11	2.12
4.	Wellbeing	307.06	15.55

Table 1 shows the mean and the standard deviation of the variables. The mean and the standard deviation of love was 82.45 and 24.74. The mean and the standard deviation of positive affect was 37.06 and 4.94. The mean and standard deviation of negative affect was 15.11 and 2.12. The mean and the standard deviation of wellbeing was 307.06 and 15.55

Table 2: Showing Product Movement Coefficient of correlation between variables

S.NO	Variables	Correlation	Significance
1	Love and positive affect	0.29	P<0.05
2	Love and negative affect	-0.13	Insignificant
3	Love and wellbeing	0.58	P< 0.01

***P is the probability of the error.**

Table 2 shows the correlation between the variables. The correlation between love and positive affect was 0.29 and it is significant at 0.05 levels ($p < 0.05$). The correlation between love and negative affect is -0.13 and was insignificant. The correlation between love and wellbeing was 0.58 and was significant at 0.01 levels ($p < 0.01$).

DISCUSSION:

After the analysis the co-relation between love and positive affect came out to be positively significant. This means that people in love show more positive feeling in their daily lives. They feel secured and are happy in their relationship. They feel content and satisfied with their partners and have a positive feeling about their lives. The feeling of love leads to a very positive affect. As a result they unconsciously spread positive energy in their environment by smiling, by showing their kindness and affection to strangers and to people around them. They behave compassionately and affectionately towards other humans, oneself or animal. Individual in love are often preoccupied with the thoughts of their loved ones. They take interest in their partners and try to be more creative in making them happy and maintain the spark in their relationship. According to Freeman (1978) and Myers (1992) love is the main cause of positive emotions. It is believed that various acts, such as kissing, sex, emotional contacts and companionship exchanged in love relationships contribute to happiness (Glenn & Weaver, 1978; Ross, Mirowsky, & Goldesteen, 1990).

The correlation between love and negative affect was negatively correlated. Hence this means that people in love do not experience many negative thoughts or feelings. People try to ignore the negative aspects of life and begin to focus upon the bright side of the life. They are less scared and confident for trying out new things. They feel less hostile about their surrounding and feel confident about their ventures. They do not get upset about things and help them get determined towards other aspects of life. According to Traupman (1978) there is no evidence of negative feelings or emotions like sadness, depression in a romantic relationship unless the couples are no more together.

Psychological well-being, broadly defined as happiness, life satisfaction and self-growth represents one of the most important aspects of efficient psychological functioning. The correlation between love and wellbeing is 0.58 which is significant at 0.01 levels. This means that people who are in love experiences psychological wellbeing. Love and wellbeing are interconnected, if people are in love, they are mentally happy and satisfied and hence it affects their overall and psychological wellbeing. It facilitates interpersonal relationships and owns to its central psychological importance which brings a healthy approach to one's life mentally and physically. Supportively, Anderson (1977) revealed that love is an important predictor of happiness and satisfaction. It is also believed that harmonious passion like love facilitates sustainable psychological wellbeing. People who feel passionate love feels satisfied in their relationship (Diener & Lucas, 2000). According to Sprecher et al. (2013) the level of love, commitment and satisfaction increases with future relationship stability.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION:

The aim of the research was to study the correlation between love, affect and wellbeing. The hypothesis that was predicted came out to be true. The correlation between love and positive affect and the correlation between love and wellbeing are positive. The correlation between love and negative affect was negative which tell us that people in love do not experience negative emotions. The mean and standard deviation on love came out to be 82.45 and 24.74. The mean and standard deviation on positive affect was 37.06 and 4.94. The mean and standard deviation on negative affect was 15.11 and 2.12. The mean and standard deviation on wellbeing was 307.06 and 15.55. The correlation between love and positive affect was 0.29 and was significant at 0.05 levels. The correlation between love and negative affect was -0.13 and was insignificant. The correlation between love and wellbeing was 0.58 which was significant at 0.05 levels.

It can be concluded that love is an experience that has multidimensional affect on ones behavioral outcomes. Love is positive in nature and enhances positivity in everybody lives Love produces positive feelings leading to enhancement of overall wellbeing. It produces healthy relationships which becomes a great support to an individual wellbeing. Love makes an individual stronger mentally and emotionally due to which he develops a positive outlook towards all situation. Also positive relationships like romantic relationship helps enhance the quality of emotional experience of an individual therefore reducing the experience of negative experience like anger, disgust, sadness etc.

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The Relationship between Depression and Anxiety Symptoms and Activity of Daily Living in Landmine Explosion Adolescent Survivors

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ABSTRACT:

Introduction: Physical disability, especially in childhood and adolescence can cause major psychological problems such as depression and anxiety. Burden of landmine in western border cities of Iran caused many disabled survivors through the years after Iran-Iraq war.

Aims: To investigate the potential association of disability of activities of daily living and symptoms of depression and anxiety in adolescents' affected of post war landmine in Iran.

Methods: This study employed two questionnaires for 35 adolescents' survivors of mine explosions; the prevalence of anxiety and depressive symptoms was examined using the Hopkins Symptom Checklist-25 (HSCL-25) and the ability to perform activities of daily living (ADL) was measured by the Barthel index questionnaire. In addition, the association between anxiety and depression with demographic characteristics and activities of daily living was estimated.

Results: Maximum independency was in activities of feeding, bowels, bathing and grooming while highest dependency was in activities of mobility, stairs and dressing. All of the cases have shown depression and the prevalence of anxiety was 31 (88.6%). An analysis of the data reveals significant association between activities of daily living included dressing, feeding, grooming and bathing with depression and anxiety ($p < 0.05$). Although eye injured cases had the most complete independency (50%) in ADL but a significant direct relation was observed between eye impairment and depression ($p = 0.050$).

Conclusion: Overall, the study suggested that adolescents with physical disability due to landmine explosion may be suffering from depression and anxiety.

Keywords: *Activities of Daily Living (ADL), anxiety, depression, landmine, survivor*

INTRODUCTION

Mines and unexploded ordnance (UXO) is threatening the lives of civilians in more than seventy countries (NRA, 2010). Some of them have been dealing with this problem for decades. Anti-personnel landmines and other explosive remnants of war (ERW) pose significant and indiscriminate risks to the civilians and is an obstacle to peaceful governance. For the civilians and communities in war-affected countries the presence of these ERWs represents an ongoing threat. In spite of the international agreement that bans anti-personnel mine in the Mine Ban Treaty which signed by many countries in 1997, mine explosions are getting victims every day (UN Mine ban treaty text, 1997). Although most victims are adult men, children by smaller size are more likely to die or suffer blindness, deafness, serious injuries and burns from ERW blast. Child survivors need the considerable social and economic supports and rely on others to carry out common daily activities.

Survivors often experience chronic pain, social exclusion and high levels of psychological distress, all of which are risk factors for poor mental health (Durham et al, 2012). This problem is more prominent in children and as a result of physical trauma, mental health of victims will be at risks and the development of the children is devastated. They suffer from phobias and fear, PTSD, depression, sleep disorders, inability to speak, force to cut education as a result of long-term injuries. Such psychological effects can limit common life of children so require use of rehabilitation for this age group. Precise assessment of activities of daily living (ADL) in survivors of landmine explosion is important for quality care and for measuring the mental health.

Relation to the 1980–88 Iran-Iraq war, western borders of Iran with land mines and unexploded ordnances (UXO) were very dangerous place for life. According to International Committee of Red Cross (ICRC) published in 2014 May, concerted efforts of Iranian Mine Action Centre (IRMAC) has raised awareness of the risks of weapon contamination and the safe practices to minimize exposure to mine-risks (ICRC, 2013). Despite all efforts some residents of these areas are the survivors of landmine explosions. Some of these victims are children and adolescents who suffered different disabilities at the beginning of their life after these casualties.

However, these events at early age with some degree of loss of health and ability made them at risk of psychiatric disorders. Since there is no report on how disability levels from ADL could be meaningfully affect on mental health in landmine survivors, we searched for any relationship between them. The mental health status and activities of daily living in adolescents who were survivors of mine and UXO explosions in western borders of Iran were evaluated.

MATERIAL AND METHODS:

Survey design and participants

We conducted a cross-sectional study of adolescent survivors of landmine explosions. We identified 75 subjects between 12 to 18 in five provinces of Iran's western border who were under the support of Veterans and Martyr Affair Foundation (VMAF) of Iran. We invited them all to participate in the study despite that 35 cases responded to invitations. Information was collected from the participants directly and in an interview for 15 to 20 minutes by a psychiatrist. Socio-demographic background data for all subjects filled in a questionnaire containing following characteristics: age, sex, age of casualty, duration of injury, education after injury and living area. Afterwards, the Hopkins Symptom Checklist-25 (HSCL-25) and Activities of Daily Living (ADL) questionnaire were completed for them.

Questionnaire Design

Activities of Daily Living (ADL)

The Activities of Daily Living (ADL) questionnaire was developed to assess basic and self-care activities of daily living and constitute everyday tasks. Reliability and validity of the Persian translated version of the Barthel Index questionnaire was confirmed in a clinical trial (Oveisgharan et al, 2006). The available scores each item are 0 and 5 for two-level items (bathing and grooming), 0, 5, and 10 for three-level items (feeding, dressing, bowels, bladder, toilet use and stairs) and 0, 5, 10 and 15 for four level items (mobility and transfers), ranging from inability to independence. The scores for each of the items are summed. The total score thus ranges between 0 (completely dependent) and 100 (completely independent) with a cutoff score of 65 indicating need for ADL assistance. The test takes approximately 5 minutes to complete.

Hopkins Symptom Checklist-25 (HSCL-25)

The Hopkins Symptom Checklist-25 (HSCL-25) is a well known and widely used screening instrument that derived from the 90-item Symptom Checklist (SCL-90) (Derogatis et al, 1974). HSCL is a screening tool designed to detect symptoms of anxiety and depression that its use date back to the 1950s. The HSCL-25 uses ten items from the HSCL-25 anxiety cluster and thirteen items from the depression cluster. It also includes two additional somatic symptoms. We recorded their estimates of severity of their symptoms scored on a Likert scale ranging from 1 "not at all" to 4 "extremely". Mean cumulative symptom scores of more than 1.75 for each subcategory have been found to be valid in predicting clinical diagnosis of anxiety and affective disorders in Iran (Bahman et al, 2001).

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Data Analyses

Statistical analysis was performed using the SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) version 22.0 package and data are presented as the mean $\pm$ standard error. Pearson correlation coefficients test were used to find the relationship between age, age of casualty and duration of injury with mean scores of HSCL-25 and ADL. P-values less than 0.05 were considered as significant. The differences in means of the HSCL-25 and ADL with sex, education, living area and type of injury explore by independent sample t-test and one-way-ANOVA. Any correlation between the two questionnaires was estimated using chi-square test. Also, to evaluate the significance of mean score of each questionnaire by cut-off point, the one sample t-test was used. There was no missing data, so there was no need to correct for this in the study.

RESULTS:

The 35 participants completed information on all variables was included in this analysis. The mean age at time of study was 16.15 ± 1.54 years; range 13–18 and the mean age of casualty time was 8.82 ± 3.39 ; range 3-15. The mean duration of injury was 7.32 ± 3.21 years; range 2-13. Among the survivors, 26 (74.3%) cases had only one injury and 9 (25.7%) suffered multiple injuries. However, the most common trauma was amputees, 20 (57.1%).

Table1. Sample socio- demographic characteristics (N=35)

Demographic Characteristics	Frequencies (%)
Age	
≤ 14 years old	5 (14.3)
15-18 years old	30 (85.7)
Gender	
Male	32 (91.4)
Female	3 (8.6)
Place of living	
Urban	13 (37.1)
Rural	22 (62.9)
Education after injuries	
Yes	30 (85.7)
No	5 (14.3)
Injuries	
Amputees	20 (57.1)
Eye injuries	10 (28.6)
Ear problems	7 (20.0)
Spinal cord injuries	3 (9.1)
Other injuries	7 (20.0)

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The mean score for Activities of Daily Living was estimated 77.43 ± 19.34 . Maximum “independency” was in activities of feeding, bowels, bathing and grooming while highest “dependency” and “need to help” was in activities of mobility, stairs and dressing (Table 2). No one scored 0-20 (absolutely dependency), twelve cases (34.3%) scored 21-60 and had severe dependence, 11 subjects (31.3%) showed moderate dependency by score 61-90, scores of 5 cases (14.3%) were 91-99 indicated slight dependency and 7 survivors (20%) scored 100 and were complete independent.

Table2. ADL among adolescents’ survivors of landmines

Daily Activities	Independent (%)	Need to help (%)	Unable (%)	ADL mean score
Feeding	27 (77.1)	8 (22.9)	0 (0%)	8.85 ± 2.13
Bathing	24 (68.6)	-	11 (31.4)	3.42 ± 2.35
Grooming	24 (68.6)	-	11 (31.4)	3.42 ± 2.35
Dressing	17 (48.6)	17 (48.6)	1 (2.9)	7.28 ± 3.80
Bowels	25 (71.4)	8 (22.9)	2 (5.7)	8.28 ± 2.95
Bladder	21 (60)	12 (34.3)	2 (5.7)	7.71 ± 3.05
Toilet use	22 (62.9)	12 (34.3)	1 (2.9)	8.00 ± 2.76
Transfers (bed to chair and back)	23 (65.7)	11 (31.4)	1 (2.9)	12.14 ± 4.42
Mobility (on level surfaces)	11 (31.4)	19 (54.3)	5 (14.3)	10.85 ± 3.31
Stairs	19 (54.3)	14 (40.0)	2 (5.7)	7.42 ± 3.06

Due to the cut-off point ≥ 1.75 for HSCL-25 all the cases have shown depression and the prevalence of anxiety was 31 (88.6%). Depressions and anxiety mean scores (4.45 ± 1.71 & 2.58 ± 0.07 , respectively) had no significant difference between boys and girls. The results showed that the mean scores of anxiety, depression and total HSCL was significantly higher than normal Iranian population ($p < 0.001$).

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In evaluating the relationship between each of activities of daily living with depression and anxiety, dressing, feeding, grooming and bathing were significantly associated with these mental problems (Table 3). No relation between the mean score of depression and anxiety with ADL was observed ($p=0.459$ & $p=0.132$, respectively). No significant correlation was found between the mean scores of depression and anxiety with demographic variables. Moreover, the mean scores of ADL were not significantly correlated with demographic characteristics.

Table 3. Relationship between ADL with depression and anxiety among adolescents' survivors of landmines

ADL Activity	Depression (P value)	Anxiety (P value)
Feeding	0.008	0.035
Bathing	0.01	$p > 0.05$
Grooming	0.05	$p > 0.05$
Dressing	0.001	0.013

The analysis revealed eye injury was significantly related to depression and ADL mean score ($p=0.050$ & $p=0.038$, respectively). As well as, a complete significant association was observed between ear impairment and the mean score of the anxiety ($p=0.002$). However, it was not found any relationship between amputation, SCI and multiple injuries with the mean score of depression, anxiety and ADL.

DISCUSSION:

Our results showed disabilities to perform activities of daily living can cause anxiety and depression. The importance of this study is due to no similar study has been conducted in the adolescent survivors of landmine explosions. Also, at the time of study, total of Iranian survivors between 13 to 18 years were 73 and the sample size in this study was approximately half of the total (47.9 %). The standardized cut-off scores in HSCL-25 showed our cases had mean scores above Iranian general population. Estimating rates of symptoms of anxiety and depression in survivors, depression was observed in all subjects and nearly ninety percent of cases had anxiety. Not surprisingly, correlations of depression and anxiety with ADL mean score were not significant as a result of high frequency of these mental problems. Unlike previous studies, no significant gender differences were seen regarding depression and anxiety. In other studies, significant difference between anxiety and depression frequencies in boys and girls is quite evident and the frequency in women is almost twice for men (Matthis et al, 2013). However, it is

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possible that due to the low number of female subjects in this study (32 versus 3) the difference could not assess between the sexes.

In half of the daily activities, two thirds of subjects were independent. Highest level of independency was observed in feeding, there was no one who is unable in this activity and only one fifth of survivors need assistance in feeding. However, the highest level of disability was estimated in bathing and grooming. The lowest level of independence was mobility on level surfaces and more than half of the subjects needed help in this activity that can be due to the high frequency of amputation in survivors.

Disability in activities such as taking bath and dressing and also need to help in feeding had significant relation with depression. One explanation for this is that such activities are primary and essential activities of daily living so it can cause depression and stress. Also, parents with a disabled child felt severe sadness and family relationships were all affected (Esine et al, 2007). As a result, it can affect children and they were suffering from depression too. On the other hand, people with more severe physical disability experienced lower levels of body esteem than people with milder physical disabilities and able-bodied people (George et al, 2004).

Moreover, mean scores on the HSCL-25 for the total scale did not have significant gender differences which could be due to the low number of girls than boys. Although significant relationship was not obtained in daily activities, but mean score of daily activity was more than ninety in 3 women participated in this study that it showed a slight dependency.

The study also examined correlates of ability to perform ADL with the type of injury. Despite the higher frequency of amputation among the victims, no significant association was observed between depression, anxiety and disability of activities of daily living with this injury. Vision problem was the only injury connected with ADL means score. Unlike previous study support the fact that vision loss has direct association with ADL disability, our results indicates that cases that have impaired vision had more ability to handle their activities of daily living (Vijaya et al, 2003). However, the rate of depression and anxiety was higher in vision impairment group despite they were more independent in ADL. Half of the survivors with vision impairment were completely independent in their activity of daily living and the rest of the eye injured victims had moderate to slight dependency in ADL.

Chronic physical conditions were a significant risk factor for behavior problems, independent of socio-demographic variables (Joan-Carles et al, 2008). Also, it is plausible that people with visual impairment are more likely to experience problems with functioning, which in turn leads to depression (Maite et al, 2009). This is strongly supported by our results in adolescents' survivors with visual impairment who show the high prevalence of depressive-anxiety symptoms. Furthermore, living with hearing loss, in many aspects, is like living with a chronic illness. According to previous studies, Hearing impaired children and adolescents basically suffer from the psychiatric illnesses such as anxiety and depression (Lier, 2013). This fact is also

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confirmed by the results of our study that was conducted on adolescents and showed ear disorders caused anxiety in this age group.

The literature in young-adult populations shows that anxiety disorders are associated with increased disability (Turner et al, 1998; Fyer et al, 1996; Sheehan et al, 1996). Our finding also showed that anxiety was associated with disability of feeding and dressing. One interpretation of this is that being incapable of the simplest basic activities in daily living can be a risk factor for increasing anxiety and stress. There was no correlation between anxiety and depression with amputation, SCI and multiple injuries, but this could be due to small sample size. Overall, the study suggested that people with physical disability due to landmine explosion may be particularly vulnerable to mental problems. One limitation of this study was the relatively small sample size and also all mine victims at the age of 13 to 18 did not participated in this study. Anyway, there is no similar study to investigate the presence of depression and anxiety in adolescents' survivors of landmine and also association between ADL disabilities with this mental problem; so these are the strengths of this study.

CONCLUSION:

Burden of landmine, many of residents of Iran's west regions are blast victims and among them, there are a significant number of children and adolescent. Between the survivors, cases with different percentages of physical disabilities can be found. In this study we showed that inability to perform activities of daily living can cause depression and anxiety and the incidence of these mental problems can be associated with the type of injuries. Given that this age group is very susceptible, especially when they compared their abilities with other teens, further studies for any further help looks necessary.

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The Impact of Gender and Area of Residence on Adjustment of Retired Old Person

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ABSTRACT:

Age sixty is usually considered the dividing line between middle and old age. Old age is the closing period in the life span. It is a stage when people move away from previous more desirable period to less desirable period. The unfavorable social attitudes towards the elderly are reflected in the way the social group treats them. It is not surprising that many elderly people develop unfavorable self concepts. These tend to be expressed in maladjustive behavior.

The main aim of present research is focused on the comparison of old persons living in the family and in the institution with regard adjustment. On the basis of aim, researcher formulated two hypotheses i.e, the level of adjustment will be higher in retired old persons living in families than institutionalized retired old persons. Second was the adjustment level will be more in retired old males than retired old females. Four hundred retired old persons belong to both the sexes to various families and institutions, of Aurangabad city. Purposive sampling technique was used for the selection. The age group of all respondents was sixty onwards and some factors as like, financial aspects, educational status, fitness, ward less factors will be matched for the sample selection. The old age adjustment inventory was developed by Shamshad Jasbir for data collection. 2*2 factorial research design was applied and two-way ANOVA was used for analysis of data. Results shown that main effect of area of residence is not significant ($F = 0.107$, $df=1, 396$). Thus Area of residence has no influence on Adjustment and Second main effect nature of gender is significant i.e male and female retired old persons ($F = 106.55$, $df=1, 396$). Thus gender was influence on adjustment. Hence it concluded that there was no significant difference on adjustment of retired old persons living in Families and institutions and the adjustment level was high in male retired old persons than female retired old persons. Justification and details are given in full-length of paper

Keywords: *Adjustment, Retired Old Person*

INTRODUCTION

Adjustment refers to changes in our ways of behaving to meet the changing demands of our environments.

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Obviously, Adjustment can be defined as a person's interaction with his environment. Each person constantly strives to meet his needs and reach his goals. At the same time he is under pressure from the environment to behave in certain ways. Adjustment involves the reconciliation of personal and environmental demands. Interaction means mutual bearing or influence. Every person is influenced by these surroundings. And each has same effect on the particular environmental settings of which he is a part. The relative amount of influence varies from setting to setting and from time to time within a particular setting. Sometimes an individual is more influenced than influential, and sometimes it is the other way around.

Environment refers to everything external to the person with which he is in some relation. In the study of adjustment, the unit of study is frequently a social group. For example, the individual is studied in relation to his family or to the people with whom he work.

Criteria's of Good Adjustment

Jahoda (1958) who found that many ideas in this area could be sorted in to a number of categories. Nine major categories are utilized in the materials which follow, but the sorting job is far from perfect. Some categories overlap and some ideas cut across categories and make several appearances. Even so the material offers the substance of present thinking concerning desirable human qualities. A good deal has been written about the personal qualities or patterns of behavior which are desirable in human beings. Many lists of these qualities have been drawn.

1. Happiness 2. Harmony 3. Self Regard 4. Self Concepts 5. The Subjective Self 6. The Social Self 7. The Ideal Self 8. Self Qualities 9. Self Insight 10. Self Identity 11. Self Acceptance 12. Self Esteem 13. Self Disclosure 14. Personal Growth 15. Personal Maturity 16. Personal Integration 17. Contact with the Environment 18. Effectiveness in the Environment

Types of Adjustment

Human beings with few exceptions, live among other human beings. They live in groups- in family, neighborhood, and community groups, in school and job groups, and so on. We sometimes speak of "personal adjustment" almost as if it could be considered apart from the social environment. But as has been indicated, the idea of adjustment implies an interaction between the individual and his surroundings, he doesn't just adjust, he adjusts to something, or, to put it in another way, he interacts with it.

Family Adjustment

Of all areas of adjustment none is more important than the family. Much of our existence is spent in the family settings the family we grew up in and the family we have established or will establish for ourselves. The consequences of family experiences are reflected in every facet of our lives. Families are complex and changing. Each family has a life of its own. It born it

lives, and it dies. The membership changes, each member changes, and the interaction between members changes. There have been relatively few longitudinal studies of families. The information from several studies suggests that there are systematic variations in a family's interaction over the year but the evidence is still too scant to warrant conclusions. (Yarrow & Yarrow, 1964). One way of defining family adjustment is in terms of physical coherence. Does the family stay together? Does it continue to exist as a physical entity? This as a simple definition, one that states an essential that can be easily and objectively determined. On the other hand, the essential it states is a minimum one, & most of us would reserve the term "adjusted" for families who do much more than simply cohere. A second definition of family adjustment is in terms of happiness. Many of us equate adjustment with happiness, and we may think of the well adjusted family as one which is happy or has a general sense of well being. The limitations of this approach to a definition are inherent in the subjective nature of happiness and in the considerable variation in happiness among family members and in any member from time to time. A third definition is in terms of task achievement. There are certain tasks which a family is expected to perform. For example, it is expected to contribute to the support & socialization of its members, by this definition, the well adjusted family is one which achieves the tasks the society has set for it.

School Adjustment

Much of our early life is spent in school, "taught to the tune of a hickory stick" or any other way, our school experiences have a lasting effect. Like families, schools are complex and changing environments. Each school system involves many people & forces-pupils, teachers, guidance workers or counselors, curriculum specialists, principals, committees, boards, and other supervisory personnel, parent groups, teacher groups, parent teacher groups as well as many other groups and individuals.

What is meant by good adjustment as applied to a child's school life? One common way of defining school adjustment is to equate it with academic achievement. In this approach, the student who achieves what he is expected to achieve is considered adjusted. The student who does not learn, who is held back in grade, or who drops out of school before graduation would not meet this criterion of adjustment. A second way of defining school adjustment is in terms of the relationships a child forms with his teachers & fellow students. By this definition, a child who gets along with his classmates & his teachers is considered adjusted. A child who is unable to form satisfactory relationships-one who is perhaps aggressive and unruly or overly shy and withdrawing would be considered poorly adjusted.

College Adjustment

College is a high point in our lives- we look forward to it, enjoy it. & carry pleasant memories along with us when we graduate. But many students find their college year filled with anxiety, doubt and struggle. Some drop out along the way. College environment & college

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populations vary considerably from institution to institution students who do poorly in one college environment may do better in another. Even within a campus different programs may present very different demands. What is meant by good college adjustment? One way defining college adjustment is simply as academic achievement, in this approach, the adjusted student is one who makes adequate grades, passes his courses and graduates. Conversely the maladjusted student is one whose grades are unsatisfactory whose course work is marginal, or falling, and who drops out of school before graduation.

Vocational Adjustment

For many of us, work is more than a way to earn a living. It as a way of living. We pattern our lives around our work, and we look to our work to add pattern and meaning to our lives (Super. 1957). Our work may be the most important source of our identity. The question, who is he? Is frequently assumed to mean, what does he do? We ask, who is he? And the answer comes, he is a teacher, or he is in sales work, or he works in the shipping department down at the plant, knowing what a man's work is enables one to make some guesses about his educational background, his economic social & intellectual status & beyond this, his attitudes, values, and style of living (Wren 1964). What is good vocational adjustment? One way of defining vocational adjustment is in terms of vocational maturity. A person is said to be vocationally maturity. A person is said to be vocationally mature if his vocational behavior is appropriate to his chronological age, that is, if it has reached the level of development, generally characteristic of his age peer. If vocational behavior is less fully developed than age warrants, he is considered vocationally immature or maladjusted. If vocational behavior is more advanced than is expected. He is considered precocious (just as he would be if his physical, intellectual, or social behavior showed accelerated development).

Marital Adjustment

Marriage has been much written about and much studied. Courses in marriage & family living, marriage manuals, and marriage counselors abound, in our culture. It is difficult to reach marriageable age without being aware of some of the pitfalls of marriage. Nevertheless marriage continues in a troubled area. Attention is continually called, to the high divorce rate. About three out of every ten marriage wind up in the divorce courts. Probably everyone knows of marriages which have failed. Many of the marriages which do survive their stormy weather, in some marriages, the first few years are particularly touch & go. Other marriages run into stress at the time the first child is born, an event which changes the interaction of the house hold in crucial ways. It is not uncommon to see a marriage disintegrate with the passing years the spouses develop in different directions & interact less & less. What is good marriage adjustment? What is poor marriage adjustment? Two commonly used definitions are implied in what was just said; one involves the idea of permanence the other, happiness.

REVIEWS:

Agren Margarita (1998) used depth interviews to investigate how life is experienced by persons at age 85 (n=129) and again at 92 (n=41). Seven patterns of adjustment ranging from self realization to withdrawal emerged and heterogeneity remained at follow up with some changes in the characteristics of the categories and in coping strategies. **Beal(2006)**, Older women report more loneliness than male peers. Loneliness is an area of concern related to the well being of older women because it is a cause of emotional distress and is linked to a variety of health problems in older individuals. Life changes, including widowhood and relocation, are associated with increased vulnerability to loneliness. Gender, social, and cultural factors influence the experience of loneliness in older women. Cognitive and interactionist theoretical approaches to loneliness have utility for nursing practice and research with older women who experience loneliness. **Golant and Stephen M(1984)** suggested that gerontologists have shown particular interest in whether old people's morale or life satisfaction is influenced by the quality of their residential environment. The extent to which older persons' assessments of their lives are influenced by their place of residence was examined through structured interviews with a random sample of 400 persons aged 60 and older, living in a middle class urban community. Subjects completed the Life Satisfaction Index A and measures assessing personality characteristics, demographic variables, socioeconomic status, life stage, activity patterns, and environmental experiences. The results revealed statistically significant direct effects of nine social and physical environment experiences on older people's life satisfaction. In addition, nine individual variables were found to independently influence life satisfaction. The individual differences and environmental experiences together explained nearly half of the statistical variation in the older people's life satisfaction levels. **Hull, Kathleen V. (1990)** found that, within the next 40 years, people age 65 and over will comprise 20% of the population, yet problems facing this older generation and their families are just coming to the attention of researchers and the public. Accordingly, this literature review focuses on the special needs of older adults and their families. After an introductory overview, the paper first reviews studies on adjustment to retirement, addressing issues such as cultural stereotypes, sex differences in adjustment, factors influencing survival rates, successful approaches to post-retirement job seeking, and marital well-being after retirement. The second part of the paper reviews research on social support networks among the elderly, including spouses, children, friends, and hired caregivers. The third section reviews studies of issues related to coping with the death of a spouse, role loss and other stressful transitions common to older adults. The fourth section addresses research on the availability and use of educational opportunities by the aged. The fifth section covers research on the correlates of life satisfaction among the elderly. These include educational level, health, income, marital satisfaction, and relationships with children. The final section reviews studies of leisure activities among older adults, including studies of what motivates older adults to pursue various kinds of leisure activities and the beneficial effects of such activities on life satisfaction. **Carr, Deborah (2004)** examined how pre-loss emotional and instrumental dependence on one's spouse affects older adults psychological adjustment to

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widowhood. Analyses are based on 297 persons from the Changing Lives of Older Couples [CLOC study], a prospective study of widowhood among adults aged 65 and older. Women who were most emotionally dependent on their spouses had the poorest self esteem while still married, yet evidence the highest levels of self esteem following loss. Men who were most dependent on their wives for home maintenance and financial management tasks experience the greatest personal growth following loss. These results suggest that widowed persons who were once highly dependent upon their spouses reap psychological rewards from the recognition that they are capable of managing on their own. **Hass-Hawkings Gwen(1980)** shown that, Although widowhood is a disruptive and inevitable phenomenon for many older people, few studies have explored either adjustment to widowhood or the impact of widowhood on the lives of elderly people. Recently widowed persons (N=51), ranging in age from 49 to 83 years old, were interviewed to examine their relatively immediate psychosocial adjustment to widowhood. The time interval between death of spouse and the interview ranged from 4 to 12 weeks. No correlation was found between the Social Network Scale and any of the four adjustment measures, suggesting that the existence of a social network characterized by stability, intimacy, and reciprocity was not an important factor in the adjustment of these recently widowed persons. Positive correlations were found between preparation for loss and self-reports of adjustment, and between internal control and life satisfaction; negative correlations were found between internal control and psychiatric symptoms, and depression. Loneliness was the most frequently reported problem of widowhood, perhaps indicating that loneliness prior to widowhood may be a significant contributing factor to post-widowhood adjustment. Compared to samples of other older people, these subjects were relatively well-adjusted as indicated by scores on functional health, depression, and life satisfaction scales.

PROBLEM:- “Comparative study of adjustment among retired old persons living in family and Institution.”

OBJECTIVES:

- 1) To compare the level of adjustment of retired old persons living in family and Institution.
- 2) To find out Gender differences of adjustment in retired old persons.

HYPOTHESES:

- 1) The level of adjustment will be higher in retired old persons living in families than institutionalized retired old persons.
- 2) The adjustment level will be more in retired old males than retired old females.

METHODOLOGY:

Sample:

The sample of the present study consists of 400 old persons. These 400 retired old persons belong to both the sexes to various families and institutions, of Aurangabad city. Purposive sampling technique will be used for the selection. The age group of all respondents will be sixty onwards and some factors as like, financial aspects, educational status, fitness, ward less factors will be matched for the sample selection. An index of gender wise break up the ss is shown from the following table:-

Gender	Retired old persons living in family	old persons living in institution	Total
Male	100	100	200
Female	100	100	200
Total	200	200	400

Operational definition of the terms used in the sample:-

1) Retired old person living in the family:-

Old people who are more than sixty age and living in the family.

2) Old people living in institution:-

Old people who are more than sixty (60) age and who are living in the institution.

Variables under the Study:

The following various are involved in the research.

1) Areas of residence (IVs):- A) Living in institutions retired old person B) Living in families retired old person.

2) Gender:- A) Male B) Female

2) Research Concepts (DVs) :-Adjustment

2x2 factorial designs:

Gender (B)	Area of residence (A)	
	Living in family(A1)	Living in institution(A2)
Male (B1)	A1B1	A2B1
Female (B2)	A1B2	A2B2

Tools for data collection: - Adjustment inventory by shamshad Jasbir

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The old age adjustment inventory was developed by Shamshad Jasbir on a sample of old aged male for female population of Bihar ranging between 50-65 years of age belonging to different categories and these on the verge of retirement. Those already retired and those who are in active service.

Reliability:

The test retest reliability of the test (area wise and overall adjustment scores) have been presented in below table.

Test –retest co-efficient of correlation of old age adjustment inventory (N=100)

Area of adjustment	Co-efficient of correlations	P value
Health	0.96	<.01
Home	0.93	<.01
Social	0.94	<.01
Marital	0.95	<.01
Emotional	0.92	<.01
Financial	0.91	<.01
Total	0.93	<.01

Validity: On the whole, it gathered that the newly developed adjustment inventory has high validity.

Scoring:-

The keyed response is to be assigned one score. The keyed response is some were in terms of 'yes' and some were in the form of 'No' response to the undecided category is not to be given any score on score is to be given to the response in the direction of adjustment and O (Zero) to the response in the directions of maladjustment. Hence the higher score indicates better adjustments the response are scored area wise the sum of score in different areas provide measure of overall adjustment.

Procedure of data collection:-

For administering the scales the Ss were called in small groups. Their seating arrangement was made in the recreation hall of the institutions. All the scales used in the study were group scales; hence they were administered on small groups of subject. Selected numbers of the Ss were asked to assemble in the recreation hall. At a time only 15 to 20 Ss were invited. They were asked to sit in chairs kept at sufficient distance from each other, for the reason than one cannot see what the other had written in the answer sheet. Researcher explained the purpose of the study in brief. Through informal talk rapport was established and the Ss were requested to

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answer the items of their scales sincerely & honestly. They were assured that their responses would be used strictly for research purpose only, and would not be disclosed to others. Their written documents would be treated as confidential. The sets of Adjustment inventory was distributed among them. They were asked to fill in the information about themselves on the front page. Afterwards they were asked to read the printed instructions along with the investigator. There are some questions given here. You have to answer each question. Each question is provided with alternatives “yes” “No” & very often, sometime, Never. You have to select one of these three alternatives as your answer to the question. However you have to select only that alternative which you think, is most appropriate in your case. You select your remark & put a ✓ mark on the answer that you select. I assure you that your responses will be treated as confidential. The procedure was demonstrated to the Ss. Doubts & difficulties raised by the Ss were answered to their satisfaction. There was no time limit, however. The Ss were told to write the responses as fast as they can. Filled copies of the scales were collected only after verifying that the Ss had replied each question. The Ss were given sufficient time to write the responses to the statements. Filled copies of the scales were collected at the end carefully, it was seen that the Ss had answered each and every statement. The first session of data collection was concluded.

Statistical Analysis:-

The data were carefully scrutinized separately for four main groups as well as for the entire sample by employing frequency distributions and descriptive statistics, Means, and Standard Deviations are reported for Adjustment. The above statistics are reported for old persons as well as for the entire sample. To evaluate Person wise differences in the various variables employed in this research, Two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) have been carried out with family life and gender as the independent variables and Adjustment as the dependent variables.

Table No.1: shows descriptive statistics for the dependent variable Adjustment:-

Variable	Area of living	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Adjustment	Retired old persons living in Families	200	85.70	7.99
	Retired old persons living in Institutions	200	85.50	6.34
	Gender			
	Male Retired old persons	200	88.84	6.64
	Female Retired old persons	200	82.36	6.24

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Above descriptive statistical table shows Mean & SD of Retired old persons living in Families and Institutions as well as male and female Retired old persons. Mean of Retired old persons living in families is 85.70 and its SD is 7.99; Mean of Retired old person living in Institutions is 85.50 and its SD is 6.34. The Mean of Male Retired old persons is 88.84 and its SD is 6.64; Mean of female Retired old persons is 82.36 and its SD is 6.24.

Table No.2: Two-way multivariate analysis of variance for dependent variable Adjustment.

Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Area of Living	4.203	1	4.203	0.107	NS
Gender	4192.563	1	4192.563	106.55	.001
Area of Living X Gender	957.903	1	957.903	24.345	.001
Error	15581.130	396	39.346		
Total	2951851.000	400			

p- 0.05= 3.86

0.01= 6.70

In the above table two-way multivariate analysis of variance, it is shown that the first main effect of area of Living i.e Institutions and families the F Value is (df1,396) =0.107, which is not significant at any level. Hence it indicates that Retired old persons living Institutions and families show the no significant difference on Adjustment.

Second main effect is nature of gender i.e male and female Retired old persons the F (df=1,396) value is 106.55. Which is significant at 0.01 level. Hence Retired old male and female person's show significant difference on Adjustment.

The interaction effect shows significant difference on Adjustment, "F" value is 24.345.which is significant at 0.01 level.

For the critical analysis, researcher analyzed Post-Hoc test as "t" test.

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Table No.3: Showing difference between Retired old persons living in Families and Institutions.

Area of living	N	Mean	SD	t	Significance level
Retired old persons living in Families	200	85.70	7.99	0.284	NS
Retired old persons living in Institutions	200	85.50	6.34		

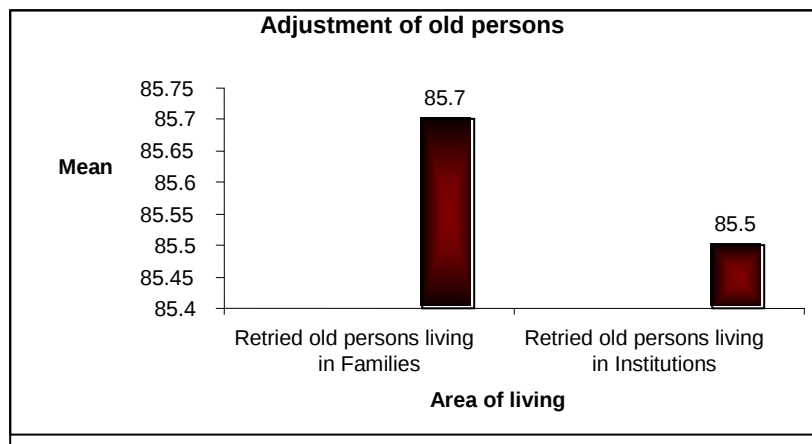
P= 0.05= 1.98

0.01= 2.617

In the above table the mean value of Retired old persons living in Families is 85.70. and SD is 7.99 as well as the mean value of Retired old persons living in Institutions is 85.50 and SD is 6.34. The obtained t value is 0.284, which is not significant. On the basis of mean it is concluded that there is no significant difference between Retired old persons living in Families and Institutions, “the level of adjustment would be higher in retired old persons living in families than Institutionalized retired old persons”. This hypothesis is rejected.

Graph-1

Following graph shows adjustment of retired old persons living in families and Institutionalized retired old persons.



The above graph shows that the mean value of Adjustment of retired old persons living in families and Institutions. It shows that there is no mean difference of retired old persons living in

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families and Institutions.

Table No.4: Showing difference between Male and female Retired old person on dependent variable adjustment.

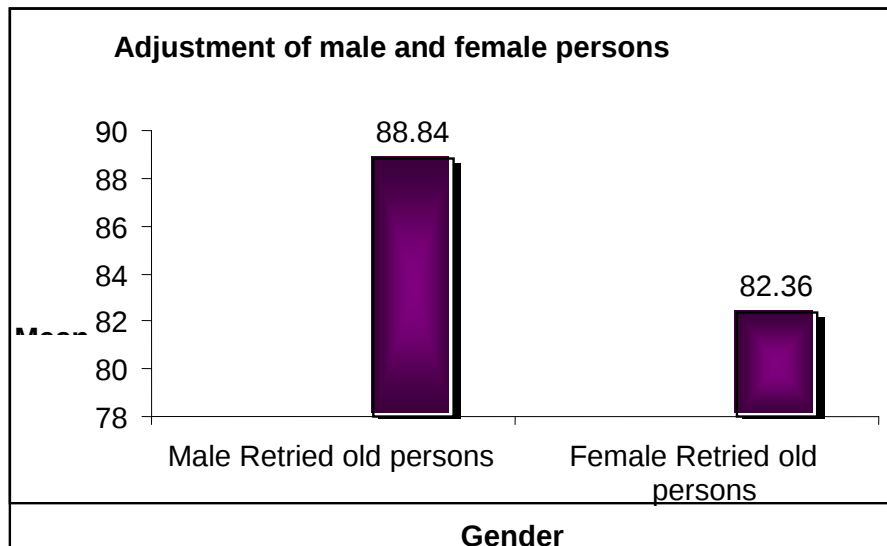
Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	Significance level
Male Retired old persons	200	88.84	6.64	10.043	0.01
Female Retired old persons	200	82.36	6.24		

P= 0.05= 1.98

0.01= 2.617

In the above table the mean value of male Retired old persons is 88.84 and SD is 6.24 as well as the mean value of female Retired old persons is 82.36 and SD is 6.24. The obtained t value is 10.043, which is significant at 0.01 level. Hence, it is concluded that there is higher level of adjustment in male Retired old persons. So second hypothesis the adjustment level would be more in retired males than retired females, is accepted.

Graph-2 Following graph shows adjustment of male and female Retired person.



The above graph shows the mean value of adjustment of male and female Retired old person. The male Retired old persons mean is higher than female Retired old persons; hence the adjustment level is more in male's Retired old persons.

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Hypotheses No. 1:- The level of adjustment would be higher in retired old persons living in families than institutionalized retired old persons.

Table No. 1, 2 and 3 indicate mean values of adjustment, 'F' values and 't' values. The means of adjustment score are 85.70 and 85.50 respectively for retired old persons living in families and institution. The main effect of area of residence is not significant ($F = 0.107$, df_1 , 396). Thus Area of residence has no influence on Adjustment. And 't' values is $0.284 > 0.05$. Thus there is a no significant difference on adjustment of retired old persons living in families and institutionalized retired old persons. The results did not support the hypothesis stating that "The level of adjustment would be higher in retired old persons living in families than institutionalized retired old persons". Hence it is concluded that there is no significant difference on adjustment between retired old persons living in Families and institutions. It indicates that they get same experience after the retired life.

In connection with the above cited findings 'Adjustment in old age may often be difficult for individuals, as it requires adopting a new life style, characterized by decreased income and activity and increased free time (Streib & Schreider 1971; McGee et.al., 1979; National Council on Aging [NCA], 1981'. The term adjustment in gerontological literature is tantamount to internal and external equilibrium of the human being (Rosow, 1967). On the other hand, George (1980) states that adjustment of an individual involves two conditions: First, the individual attempts to meet the demands of the environment; and second, the individual perceives and experiences a sense of general well-being in relation to the environment. The concept of adjustment has also been studied from the practical or empirical perspective and Donahue et al., (1960) have cited the following factors, such as satisfactory health, married life, good families relationship, friendship, feeling of security, social status equal to that of what they have had previously and plan for the future, religiosity, and belief in rebirth to be positively associated with good adjustment in old age. Raghani and Singhi (1970) studied the "adjustment problems of retired persons". They reviewed a number of empirical studies to examine the factors associated with successful adjustment in old age and pointed out a number of weaknesses with regard to good and poor adjustment. They argued that firstly, there is a lot of cultural and socio-economic variation among respondents; and secondly, the effect of retirement upon individuals should be studied prior to determining and establishing characteristics of good and bad adjustment.

Retirement is different today. In the past, it meant a slowing down of activity and the completion of work life. Retirement was generally used in reference to men. Now retirement for both men and women can mean having the opportunity to take up hobbies, travel, start a new career, go back to school, spend time with families, take care of grandchildren, or work only part-time.

After retirement begins, time spent with colleagues from work diminishes, while opportunities to spend more time alone, or with a spouse, families, or friends, increases. Reactions to these relationship changes can be different for each person. Some may enjoy the

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wonderful opportunities for sharing additional experiences with a spouse, families, or friends. For others, this increased time together can create a strange and unfamiliar situation – particularly for a spouse who has been a full time homemaker and then suddenly having a retired spouse at home each day. Additional challenges can arise in a partnership in which one spouse wants to continue working while the other spouse is ready for a more leisure-filled retirement. This may give rise to families' tensions, especially during the initial transition period. The key is to remain aware that changes in relationships are a normal and expected part of retirement.

Retirement is a personal experience; some find adjusting to it easier than others. Making a smooth transition to retirement depends on financial circumstances, health, and attitude, as well as the reaction and behavior of loved ones and friends. Most everyone faces the following challenges Using the newly found available time that retirement brings to develop new interests and skills, retirees can acquire new roles, such as volunteer, artist, gardener, traveler, or student – to name just a few. The emotional reactions to leaving behind prior roles and taking on new ones can range from shock, fear, and nervousness to excitement, joy, and relief.

Hypothesis No.2:- The adjustment level will be more in retired old males than retired old females.

Table No. 1, 2 and 4 indicate mean values of adjustment, 'F' values and 't' values. Means of adjustment score are 88.84 and 82.36 respectively for male and female retired old persons. Second main effect nature of gender is significant i.e male and female retired old persons. ($F = 106.55$, $df=1, 396$ $P < 0.01$) and 't' values $10.04 < 0.01$. Thus type of gender has influence on Adjustment. The mean of adjustment is higher in male retired old persons than female retired old persons. These results support hypothesis No. 2 stating that "The adjustment level would be more in retired old males than retired old females."

Results of the present study are consistent with finding of Carr, Deborah (2004) and Haas-Hawkings, Gwen-(1980) suggested that the low level of adjustment in widowhood women. In one study conducted by Crandall (1980) who found that individuals who live with their spouse were happier and better adjusted. Being married with a living spouse is an important source of support for a retired woman which leads to better adjustment. Discontinuity in marital status, separated or widowed seemed to have disruptive consequences and negative effects on the adjustment of retired women. The findings that retired widows were the least adjusted as compared to those with spouse or separated were in line with findings of Holmes and Rahe (1976), who found that the death of a spouse was a major life stressor requiring more adjustment than any other life event Jamuna and Ramamurti (1988) also found that widows were poorly adjusted as compared to non widows. Following widowhood there was usually a sudden loss of financial support and a consequent by a lowering of the standard of living. Hull, Kathleen V (1990) studied on adjustment to retirement, addressing issues such as cultural stereotypes, sex differences in adjustment, factors influencing survival rates, successful approaches to post-retirement job seeking, and marital well-being after retirement and found that women are facing much more adjustment problem. Another study shows V. A. Braithwaite D. M. Gibson and

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Richard Bosly-Craft (1986) that female retirees identify four poor adjustment styles—poor health, negativism, change adaptation and retirement reluctance.

CONCLUSIONS:- On the basis of data and discussion of results, the hypotheses were tested and following conclusion were drawn:

1. There was no significant difference on adjustment of retired old persons living in Families and institutions.
2. The adjustment level was high in male retired old persons than female retired old persons.

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A Study of Life Satisfaction and Mood States of Police and Civil Employees

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ABSTRACT:

There are number of Psychological researches related to behavioral aspects of human being of organizational field. Presents research is about police and local body Administration of organizational field. To study police Employees psychologically become necessary because of suicide case on Duty, Demolishing, antisocial activities, aggressiveness of seniors and these results in indicate imbalance of low order. Exploitation of citizens treating inferiorly, job in satisfaction, Corruption, various scandals, sexual Harassment by some civil employees of local body administration, force to study psychologically above said is to focus on mood states of employees and life satisfaction. It is necessary to study their state of mind psychologically. Thus researcher selected the Aurangabad area of Maharashtra region in India. 400 respondents from police and civil employees were selected by random method with criterion of equal matching method. There are four hypotheses were formulated, a) The level of life satisfaction would be high in civil employees than policeman. b) The life satisfaction will be more in urban employees than rural employees serving in police and civil departments. c) There will be significant differences in mood states of police and civil employees. d) There would be significant differences in mood states of urban and rural employees serving in police and civil depts. Researcher has used life satisfaction scale designed and prepared by Q.G. Alam & Dr. Ramji Srivastava and Mood States Questionnaire by Dr. M. Bhargva and Dr. Kapoor has used for data collection. Two-way ANOVA was applying for data analysis, all results were significant on 0.05 and 0.01 level. Hence it concluded that nature of employment and area of residence are influence on life satisfaction and mood states.

Keywords: *Life Satisfaction, Mood States*

INTRODUCTION

There are number of Psychological researches related to behavioral aspects of human being of organizational field. Presents research is about police and local body Administration of organizational field. Now a day's police and civil Employees are stress. Job in said employees can be seen due to nature of work, Overload, deviation from family and colleagues.

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Employees are facing Psychological problems and Emotional stability and problems and emotional stability and problem are increasing day by day low salary and job insecurity is becoming a serious problems and attitude of Employees is changing and less life satisfaction seen. Number of police and civil Employees force to study their Psychological problems/perspectives. To study police Employees Psychologically become necessary because of suicide case on Duty, Demolishing, antisocial activities, aggressiveness of seniors and this results in indicate imbalance of low order. Exploitation of citizens treating inferiorly, job in satisfaction, Corruption, various scandals, sexual Harassment by some civil employees of local body administration, force to study Psychologically Above said is to focus on mood states of employees and life satisfaction. It is necessary to study their state of mind psychologically.

A) Term of life satisfaction:-

Satisfaction is state of mind. It is an evaluative appraisal of satisfaction. The term refers to both “contentment” and “enjoyment” as such it covers cognitive as well as effective appraisal. Satisfaction can be both evanescent and stable through time

Definition:-

“Life satisfaction is the degree to which a person positively evaluates the overall quality of his/her life as a whole. In other words, how much the person likes the life he/she leads”. Current synonyms for the life satisfaction are “happiness” and “subjective well being” one advantage in using the life satisfaction than word “happiness” is that it emphasis’s the subjective character of the concept, the word “happiness” is also used to refer to an objective good; especially by philosophers, further, the term life satisfaction has the advantage over the label of “subjective well-being” is that life rather than to current feelings or to specific Psychosomatic symptoms.

Life satisfaction can be defined as the cognitive component of subjective well-being(Martikainen, 2008). This is consistent with Bradley & Corwyn (2004) who say that life satisfaction reflects both the extent to which basic needs are met and the extent to which a variety of other goals are viewed as attainable. From this perspective it seems only reasonable that by accomplishing more goals, satisfaction with life will also increase. According to Beutell (2006) it is believed that life satisfaction is related to better physical, and mental health, longevity, and other outcomes that are considered positive in nature. In addition, Chow (2009) argues that improved levels of life satisfaction might give rise to better health in the future, and that this can already be identified within a three-year timeframe. Although there is a lack of congruence regarding the definition of life satisfaction (Iverson & Maguire, 2000), this thesis will adopt the definition as described by Veenhoven (1991, p.3): “Life satisfaction is conceived as the degree to which an individual judges the overall quality of his life-as-a-whole favourably.

Demographic Variable as a predictor of life satisfaction :-

The most majority of research on life satisfaction instigates the extent to which various Demographic Variable as a predict of life satisfaction. However, Because researcher are not able to perform true experiments by randomly assigning participants to demographic group(e.g. Gender, Income, Age), All of this research as necessarily been comparative much of the nature of working place & nature of employment has focused on the determinants of life satisfaction- That is the extent to which satisfaction is related to the environment both imposed (e.g. Urban & rural, Civil & Police) & relatively controllable (e.g. Income, Education, Age, Marriage, Gender)As well as to specific aspects of persons state of mind.

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Work related conditions – employment status:

Clark & Oswald (1994) say that the effect of being jobless, at any conventional level, is statistically significant and negatively correlated with well-being. They state: "Joblessness depresses well-being more than any other single characteristic (including important negative ones such as divorce and separation)." Besides the loss of income, Darity & Goldsmith (1996) argue that joblessness also leads to decreased self-esteem and a reduced feeling that life is under control. Additionally, they say that joblessness is related to the loss of several by-products of participating in a work environment, such as: the time structure of the working day, shared experiences and contacts, transcending goals and purposes, and personal status and identity. According to Winkelmann & Winkelmann (1998) these non-pecuniary costs of unemployment by far exceed the pecuniary cost associated with loss of income while being unemployed. They say that sevenfold of income is required to compensate for the negative effects associated with personal unemployment. Although it is, based on the relative standards theory, often suggested that living in a region characterized by high unemployment will alleviate the discontent of personal joblessness, Pittau, Zelli & Gelman (2009), who examined this premise, did not find any empirical evidence for this effect. It is, alternatively, more than likely that life satisfaction is positively affected by being employed. According to Bouazzaoui & Mullet (2002) employment is one of the requisites for satisfaction with life in Western societies. Additionally, Waddell & Burton (2006) indicate that there is a strong theoretical case that work and paid employment are generally beneficial for physical and mental health, as well as for well-being. They argue that employment is generally the most important means of obtaining adequate economic resources, which are essential for material well-being, and full participation in today's society. Moreover, they state that work is central to individual identity, social roles and social status, and meets important psychological needs in societies where employment is the norm. Since this reasoning depicts employment as key to increasing material well-being as well as satisfying psychological needs, it is, based on the theory of post-materialism, feasible that being employed will generally have a greater impact on individuals living in economically deprived regions than on individuals residing in economically prosperous regions.

B) Mood states:-

The most recent development in scientific psychology have been concerned with the psychology of emotions. The emotional life was considered better than the rational life because it was directly connected with the body. Those theorists of antiquity and feeling at all as psychological problems attributed them to a lower type of soul. The whole direction of our schooling in ethical problems and problems of correct behavior has been, until very recently, schooling in emotional inhabitation. The child must learn to control his loves and his hates, his fears and rages, his moods of excitement and depression despite the fact that civilization requires emotional control and emotional inhabitation most of us who are honest with ourselves realize that, were it not for the promise of certain emotional satisfaction. Life would be scarcely worth living at all.

No doubt many points in the older views regarding emotions were basically sound. It is quite obvious to everyone that, must be curbed at sometimes and redirected at others. The modern view breaks with the order pre scientific view not at all another question of ethics but rather and questions as to the nature of the emotions. Emotions are today considered as natural phenomenon exactly as worthy of psychological study as any other form of behavior.

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As the age grow young and old both may regress to infancy, to escape reality, becoming depended on others for care. Thus the emotional disturbances such as anxiety, depression, aggression, conflict, fatigue at quilt feeling, among peoples may be seen commonly in several cases.

Main purpose of present study, researcher has comprises the life satisfaction and mood states to nature of employment and area of working place of police and civil employees in Aurangabad district (M.S, India).

PROBLEM:-

“To comparative study of mood states and life satisfaction of employees serving in police and civil department with reference in Marathwada region (A study limited to Aurangabad district)”

OBJECTIVES:-

Following are the main objectives of the present research study:-

1. To study the mood states of employees serving in police and civil departments.
2. To study the satisfaction of employees serving in police and civil departments.
3. To study the life satisfaction of rural and urban employees serving in police and civil Departments.
4. To study the mood states of urban and rural employees serving in police and civil departments.

HYPOTHESES:-

Following hypotheses are framed for the present study:-

1. The level of life satisfaction would be high in civil employees than policeman.
2. The life satisfaction will be more in urban employees than rural employees serving in police and civil departments.
3. There will be significant differences in mood states of police and civil employees.
4. There would be significant differences in mood states of urban and rural employees serving in police and civil depts.

METHODOLOGY:-

A) Sample:-

The sample was drawn from the population of employees working from Aurangabad district. The present study consists 400 respondents (200 policemen and 200 civil employees). Respondents were selected from Aurangabad district by Randomized method. All these respondents were matched for pay scale (a basic 4200 to 5700) educational qualification (12th to undergraduate), experience (10 to 15 year between) and age group (30 to 45 years). Sample consists of Police Head Constable (police employee) and Senior Clerks (civil employees).

Out of 400 respondents, 200 employees are serving in rural area of Aurangabad district since last five year and 200 urban employees serving area of Aurangabad city since at last five year. Sample of

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senior clerks were taken from collector office, Zillha Parishad office, Tahsil office and Panchayat samitee and policemen taken from various police station in Aurangabad district. Following table gives an idea of the sample.

Area of working place	Police employees (Head constable)	Civil employees (Senior clerk)	Total
Urban employees	100	100	200
Rural employees	100	100	200
Total	200	200	400

***Operational definitions of the terms used in the sample*.**

1. Civil employees:-

Persons serving as senior clerk in Zillha Parishad, Panchayat Samitee, Tahsil office, and collector office are considered as civil employees.

2. Police Employees :-

Persons serving as head constables in police department of Aurangabad district are considered as police employees.

3. Urban employees :-

Employees serving in Aurangabad city, are considered urban employees.

4. Rural employees :

Employees serving at taluka place in Aurangabad city, are considered urban employees.

B) Tools for using to data collection:-

1. Life satisfaction scale (L-S scale):- Researcher has used life satisfaction scale designed and prepared by Q.G. Alam & Dr. Ramji Srivastava. Published on 2001 by National psychological corporation, Agra. The L.S.S. comprises of 60 items related to six areas of life viz. Health, Personal, Economic, Marital, Social and Job. The responses are to given in yes/no. yes responses indicate Satisfaction, whereas No indicate Dissatisfaction. Test-Retest reliability quotient is 0.84. The validity of the scale was obtained by correlating it with Saxena's Adjustment Inventory and Srivastaava adjustment inventory. The quotient obtained was 0.74and 0.84 respectively.

2. Mood States Questionnaire by Dr. M. Bhargva and Dr. Kapoor:- Researcher has used eight state questionnaire designed and prepared by Cattell and Curran (designed 1973 Curran in press) published by National Psychological Corporation at Agra. The eight state questionnaire (8

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SQ) was specify for measuring eight important emotional states and moods i.e Anxiety, Stress, Depression, Guilt, Regression, Fatigue, Extraversion and Arousal. Reliability and Validity is very high and satisfactory of this questionnaire.

C) Variables the under study:

The present study was designed to find out the effect of independent variable and dependant variables. Following variables were studying:-

Independent variable(Ivs):-

1. Nature of Employment (A):- A1 Police Employees

A2 Civil Employees

2. Area of working place(B):- B1 Urban Employees

B2 Rural Employee

Dependent variable(Dvs):-

1. Life satisfaction

2. Mood States

D) Research design:-

In the present study researcher designed to study the Police employees and Civil employees. This was belonging from Urban and rural areas. Therefore researchers framing the following type of 2*2 factorial design.

Nature of Employment (A)	Area of working place(B)	
	Urban (B1)	Rural (B2)
Police employees(A1)	A1B1	A1B1
Civil employees (A2)	A2B1	A2B2

E) Procedure:-

After establishing proper rapport with the subject, the Life satisfaction Scale and Eight State Questionnaire was administered on the sample in small groups of 20-25 employees in Aurangabad district.

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STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND RESULTS:-

Researcher apply following properties for statistical treatment, descriptive statistics, two-way ANOVA and 't' techniques will be used for data analysis to understand the mean difference between both groups of employees.

Table no:1 shows the research design with sample size.

Variables(Ivs)	Value Label	N
Area of working	Urban employees	200
	Rural employees	200
Nature of Employment	Police employees	200
	Civil Employees	200

Table No.2: Shows two-way univariate analysis of variance for dependent variable life satisfaction.

P:	Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
	Area of working	4.410	1	4.410	.197	NS	--
	Nature of Employment	761.760	1	761.760	33.975	0.01	.079
	Area of working X Nature of Employment	4.840	1	4.840	.216	NS	--
	Error	8878.740	396	22.421			
	Corrected Total	9649.75	396				
	Total	552082.00	400				

0.05= 3.86

0.01= 6.70

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Eta squared= 0.01= small effect; 0.06=moderate effect 0.14= large effect (Cohen, 1988)

In the above table two-way univariate analysis of variance it is shown that the first main effect of area of working i.e urban and rural. The value $F(1,396) = 0.197$ which is not significant. Hence it indicates that urban and rural employees not showing the difference about life satisfaction and no question of effect size.

Second main effect is nature of employment i.e police and civil employees the $F(df=1,396)$ value is 33.975, Which is significant on 0.01 level. Hence police and civil employees show significant difference in terms of their life satisfaction. Here eta squared value is 0.079 and it shows moderate effect and variance is 7.9. The interaction effect showing no significant difference about life satisfaction, "F" value is 0.216.

For search out the difference between two means, researcher analyzed Post-Hoc test as "t" test.

Table No.3: shows difference between civil and police employees for dependent variable life satisfaction.

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Significance Level
Civil	200	38.21	4.622	5.862	0.01
Police	200	35.44	4.827		
Urban	200	36.93	4.996	0.4265	Not Significant
Rural	200	36.72	4.849		

$P = 0.05 = 1.98$

$0.01 = 2.617$

In the above table the mean value of civil employee is 38.21 and SD is 4.622 as well as the mean value of police employee is 35.44 and SD is 4.827. Obtained 't' value is 5.862 which is significant on 0.01 level. On the basis of mean it is concluded that police employees having less life satisfaction than civil employees. And accepts first hypothesis, "The level of Life Satisfaction would be high in civil employees than Policemen". The mean value of urban employee is 36.93 and SD is 4.996 as well as the mean value of rural employee is 36.72 and SD is 4.849. Obtained 't' value is 0.4265 which is not significant. Hence, it is concluded that there is no difference between urban and rural employees in terms of their life satisfaction. And reject second hypothesis. "The Life Satisfaction will be more in urban employees than rural employees serving in police and civil department".

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Table No.04: shows two-way unvaried analysis of variance for dependent variable Mood states.

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Area of working	10475.523	1	10475.523	52.621	0.01	0.117
Nature of Employment	1975.802	1	1975.802	9.925	0.01	0.024
Area of working X Nature of Employment	1517.103	1	1517.103	7.621	0.01	0.019
Error	78833.970	396	199.076			
	92802.4	396				
Total	3392293.000	400				

p- 0.05= 3.86

0.01= 6.70

Eta squared= 0.01= small effect; 0.06=moderate effect 0.14= large effect

In the above table two-way univariate analysis of variance it is shown that the first main effect of area of working i.e urban and rural .The value $F(1,396) = 52.621$. which is significant on 0.01 level Hence it indicate that urban and rural employees showing significant difference about mood states and Eta squared value is 0.117, showing moderate effect and variance is '1.1'.

Second main effect is nature of employment i.e police and civil employees the value $F(1,396) = 9.925$ (df=1,396). Which is significant on 0.01 level. Hence showing significant difference about mood states and Eta squared value is 0.024, Showing small effect and variance is '0.2'.

The interaction effect showing significant difference about mood states "F" value is 7.621 its significant on 0.01 level and eta squared value is 0.019 showing small effect and its variance is 0.1.

For the critical analysis, researcher analyzed Post-Hoc test as "t" test.

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Table No.5: shows difference between civil and police employees for dependent variable mood states.

Group	N	Mean	SD	T	Significance Level
Civil	200	93.04	15.623	2.9403	0.01
Police	200	88.60	14.572		
Urban	200	95.94	12.294	7.1130	0.01
Rural	200	85.71	16.204		

P= 0.05= 1.98

0.01= 2.617

In the above table the mean value of civil employee is 88.60 and SD is 14.572 as well as the mean value of police employee is 93.04 and SD is 15.623. Obtained 't' value is 2.9403. Which is significant on 0.01 level. On the basis of mean it is concluded that the level mood states high in police employees than civil employees. And accept third hypothesis "There will be significant differences in mood states of police and civil employees". The mean value of urban employee is 95.94 and SD is 12.294 as well as the mean value of rural employee is 85.71 and SD is 16.204. Obtained 't' value is 7.11. Which is significant on 0.01 level. Hence, it is concluded that the mood states level high in rural employees and urban employees. And accepts hypothesis fourth, There would be significant differences in mood states of urban and rural employees serving in police and civil depts.

DISCUSSION:-

Hypothesis No:-1

"The level of life satisfaction would be high in civil employees than policemen"

Table No. 2 and 3 indicate mean values of life satisfaction, 'F' values and 't' values. Means of life satisfaction score are 38.21 and 35.44 respectively for civil and police employees. Civil employees' scoring is higher than policemen. The main effect of nature of employment is significant ($F = 33.975$, $df-1, 396$ $P < 0.01$) and 't' values $5.56 < 0.01$. Thus there is a significant difference in life satisfaction of police and civil employees. The results support hypothesis stating that "The level of life satisfaction would be high in civil employees than policemen. The effect size (partial et square) for main effect of nature of employment on life satisfaction is moderate (0.079), meaning that employment explains 0.7% variance for life satisfaction (Table No. 3)

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The results of present study are consistent with the findings of McGinnis (1985a 1985b) who reported that lower ranked police constables were less satisfied than departmental clerks. Cooper and McGinnis (1982, 1985a) showed that police constables were less satisfied with their work and life. The results are also in line with the findings of Hart-peter (1999) who showed significant differences in life satisfaction between police and other employees.

According to Fredric Anseel and Filip lievers (2007) favorable feedback environment is necessary for higher level of satisfaction but in police department, however, unfavorable feedback environment prevails, Hence, the policemen might experience less satisfaction than civil employees.

Moreover, there is different work culture in police services. The nature of work and life style of policemen is quite different from civil employees. They have minimum holidays, no prescribed time limit for duties. As a results, they do not enjoy personal or family life in a real sense, on the contrary, the civil employees have maximum holidays, specific duty hours, generally experience democratic way of functioning in the offices. Hence, the policemen experience more stress and less life satisfaction than civil employees.

Hypothesis No. 2

"The Life satisfaction would be more in urban employees than rural employees."

The results of the present study (Table No.2) show that the main effect of working is not significant ($F = 0.197$, $df = 1, 396$. $P > 0.05$) As per table 3, the means of life satisfaction scores are 36.93 and 36.72 respectively, for the urban and rural employees. The difference between the means is almost null. Thus hypothesis no. 2 is rejected.

Majority of studies have reported differences in life satisfaction for urban and rural employees. However, researcher did not find any differences in the life satisfaction of urban and rural employees. Daniela Andren, Peter Martinson(2006) who showed that life satisfaction increases with housing standard, health status, economic situation, education, trusting other people and living country side, which are the characteristics of urban areas. Hence life satisfaction is lower in western countries. Robert W. Rice (1986) suggested that the level of life satisfaction is lower in rural employees than urban employees. Margaret Peril(1984) showed that the standard of living achieved and job income are most important factors in satisfaction with the quality of urban life. Ariela Lowenstein (2005) who showed that life satisfaction was higher in urban than rural peoples.

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In the of Indian society day by day, the difference between urban and rural area is reducing. Villagers also try to adopt urban life style. Rural people are also benefited by recent technology. Government provides same facilities all the employees in urban and rural areas. Hence no difference was observed in life satisfaction of rural and urban employees.

Hypothesis No. 03

“There will be significant differences in mood states of police and civil employees.”

As per table No 4 and 5, the means of mood states score are 93.04 and 88.60 respectively for the police and civil employees, the main effect of employment (table 39) is significant for mood states ($F=9.925$, $df=1,396$, $P<0.01$). The policemen scored higher on mood states than civil employees, the results supported hypothesis 19. The effect size (partial eta square) for the main effect of nature of employment on mood states is small (0.024) meaning that nature of employment explains 0.2% variance for mood states. The results of indicate that the mood states levels is higher in policemen than civil employees.

Police employees have high mood state level than civil employees. In present research the mixed results are found in the term of stress, Anxiety, arousal and fatigue. But difference found in life satisfaction is effectiveness on mood states. In short there is interrelationship between work/job factors psycho-social factors end may be because of these above results are founds.

Hypothesis No. 04

There would be significant differences in mood states of urban and rural employees.

As per table 4 and 5, the mean of mood states scores are 95.94 and 85.71 respectively for the rural and urban employees. The main effect of area of working (table 39) is significant ($F=52.621$, $df=1,396$, $P<0.01$) for mood states. The rural employees mean scored higher on mood states level than urban employees. The results support hypothesis 20. The effect size (partial eta square) for the main effect of area of working on mood states is large (0.11), meaning that area of working explains 1.1% variance for mood states. The results indicate that the mood states levels is higher in rural employee than urban employees. The mood states level is found to be more in rural employees than urban employees. From the different view of thinking mental stress is emerged. If the working place is far way from head office then the orders and information of senior officers are not cleared. The orders and information of senior officer are unclear because of for distance between working place and head office. Hence employees get pressured shed work. The job distribution is beyond capacity of the employees due to which pressure of job is increased. Having the lack of facilities, job status is getting decreased. The fulfill needs of family, salary is not

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sufficient as compare to job. Always not only due to economical problem but also work responsibility, the employees are getting seek or hectic.

CONCLUSIONS:-

On the basis of data and discussion of results, the hypotheses were tested and verified some of them were retained and some were rejected, following conclusion were drawn:

1. The civil employees having more life satisfaction than policemen.
2. The level of life satisfaction is higher in rural employees than urban employees.
3. The mood states level is higher in policemen than civil employees.
4. The mood states level is more in rural employees than urban employees.

Suggestion:-

Following attempts are made to help employee's better manage the personality:-

Design of programs and activities to increase officer participation in decision making and improve the quality of work life through enhanced communication, Development of training programs in stress awareness, Establishment of specific police stress programs such as psychological services health/ nutrition programs and exercise programs, Development of peer-counseling programs, Development of operational policies that are directed at reducing stress (scheduling, work hours, workload etc), Development of managerial skills that are people oriented, Use of relaxation and other stress reducing techniques, Use of spouse/family/involvement programs, Implementation of total wellness (physical and emotional) programs, Recognize attempt to assess, and meet the needs of diverse publics, Communicate policies effectively to publics and officers, Treat all citizens with respect and preserve human dignity, Values are designed as beliefs and principles by which the people department fulfills responsibilities, To increase the quality of life at work place, Decreasing working hours, workload and Govt. give to optimum values of work.

Limitations:-

1. The present study is limited to mainly police employees, who are serving in as of head constable and civil employees, who are serving in as senior clerks from the local administration sector.
2. The study has been delimited with respect to sample. The size of the sample is drawn from the various Police-stations in the Aurangabad city and taluka place.
3. The age group of the sample is in between 25to45 years & all over is married.

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4. There is no consideration for sex difference in the present research.
5. Present study is only limited on Aurangabad District.

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Demographic Correlates of Environmental Worry: An Explorative Investigation

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ABSTRACT:

This explorative study tried to identify whether environmental worry differs with age, gender and educational qualification among rural population in Kerala. The data was collected from 102 rural individuals in Ernakulam district. Out of which 50 are males and 52 females. 50 of them are below age group of 40 and 52 are in above the age of 40. The scale used was Environmental worry scale (EWS, 1996), a 17 item scale developed by Bowler and Schwarzer. The obtained results showed that women have significantly higher levels of worry when compared to men and People in the below 40 age group have significantly higher levels of worry compared to people above 40. The results imply that the government has to put in efforts at an early stage to promote environmental awareness among people and curriculum need to be redesigned in a way to promote environmental protection. At the same time laws enforcing environmental protection have to be implemented strictly at all levels of government to ensure environmentally healthy behavior.

Keywords: *Demographic Correlates, Environmental Worry*

INTRODUCTION

The human environment interaction dates back to ancient times of hunter gatherers where they lived on wild plants and animals. In contrast agricultural societies rely on settlement by invading the land of gatherers and establishing private properties. But the relationship with nature changed completely after industrialization where people started considering themselves above nature and had a utilitarian approach to nature. This was the beginning of environmental degradation. The specific characteristics of the social system affect human environment interaction. People's attitude to nature, their behavior and their impact on eco system is determined by the type of society in which they are in. Population size, value, technology, social organization, wealth, education etc. are some factors which determine people's view of life. Different forms of environmentally harmful behaviour leads to many kinds of diseases and destruction of many living things. This can cause anxiety in people about the environment.

"Environmental worry can be operationally defined as an emotional reaction and thoughts to unavoidable and continuous devastating events which damage the human animal and plant survival and safety." Now there is a global environmental movement, which seeks to consolidate individual efforts to improve upon the way human beings interact with the planet. There are also some laws for protecting the environment. Environmental worry means feeling uneasy about environment or concerns about environmental issues.

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Demographic Correlates of Environmental Worry: An Explorative Investigation

A common mental response to risk is worry. Though generally associated with fear and anxiety, worry is primarily a cognitive activity that can, under some circumstances, be beneficial for developing coping strategies to deal with stressful events. As an emotion, it is experienced as anxiety or concern about a real or imagined issue, usually personal issues such as health or finances or broader ones such as environmental pollution and social or technological change. All people experience worry about anything in their whole life. Some studies say that an optimal level of worry has positive effects.

Steinheider & Hodapp, (1999) studied environmental worry and found that environmentally conscious behaviour was related to avoidance of creating waste, separation of waste, environmental protection activities, saving of resources and use of toxic substances. However, sex or age seemed to have no effects. A higher level of education correlated to less environmental worry in a significant way. A correlation between environmental worry and environmentally conscious behaviour could not be proven. However, the relationship between environmental worry, attitudes towards the environment, and social norms was significant. Our data suggest that for a modification of environmentally conscious behaviour, measures aimed at changing the social norm are more successful than those aimed at changing individual attitudes. Moreover, increased environmental worry does not seem to increase environmentally friendly behaviour.

Gould and Edelstein (2010) on “worry, emotion control and anxiety control in older and younger adults”, found that young adults worry more than older adults. Young women worried more often than young men and older adults. They also found that young women have less control over their anxiety compared to young men and older adults. Matthies, Selge & Klockner (2012) investigated how parents influence pro-environmental behaviours of their children and found that norm activation model can be applied to pro-environmental behaviour of young children. Communication behaviour of parents had a different influence on the two respective behaviours. While parents seemed to influence their children's recycling behaviour via sanctions and their own behaviour, re-use of paper was mainly influenced via communication of problem knowledge.

Herr, Caroline, Rethage, Tobias, Eikmann and Thomas (2004) on “Assessment of environmental worry in epidemiological studies.” showed that 97.5% showed extremely high worry. This group was characterized by a life quality below the average and high values regarding the complaint frequency. The subjective or health related component of the environmental worry index was associated with poorer sleep quality even when somatoform features were considered, whereas general environmental worry was not associated with poorer sleep quality.

Another study by Sarigollu (2009) on “ A cross-country exploration of environmental attitude” , he found that there is significant differences in environmental attitudes between collectivistic versus individualistic , externally versus internally controlled , materialistic versus post materialistic , past oriented versus future oriented cultures , and across levels of modernity and pollution. A study was conducted by Ojala (2007) on “ quantitative and qualitative analysis of household recycling among young adults” The result showed that a mix of negative emotion

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(worry) and positive emotion(hope and joy) about the environmental problems related to recycling.

Study by Badr Hel-S (2003) on “Environmental awareness and worry among high school teachers in Kuwait” shows that about 60% of the teachers had high level of environmental awareness and almost half of them had high level of environmental worry. Both scores increased with increasing age and number of years of experience. The level of teacher’s environmental worry was significantly positively related to their environmental awareness.

Kahn & Lourenco (2002) on “Developmental Study in Portugal of Environmental Moral Reasoning” found that participants thinking as polluting their water source as a violation of moral ethics. They justified this as both anthropocentric appeals (e.g. To personal interests, human welfare, and aesthetics) and bio centric appeals (e.g., that nature has intrinsic value or rights). Cross-cultural comparisons with studies conducted in the United States and the Brazilian Amazon support the proposition that there are substantial similarities in the environmental moral reasoning of young people across diverse cultures.

A study on “Worldly and work a day worries: Contemporary concerns of children and young adolescents” Hanker, Carol, Whale & O’Neil(1995) found that many students carry a substantial worry burden that includes not only personal matters such as grades and social relations, but also concerns about death and about global issues such as homelessness and environmental degradation. The gender and grade differences that emerged were consistent with a developmental extension from self to societal perspectives.

In “Explaining Gender Differences in Concern about Environmental Problems in the United States” by Xiao, Chenyang; McCright & Aaron (2012) showed that consistent support for the claim that risk perception mediates the direct effect of gender on environmental concern. Results offer no support for various arguments that men's and women's differential performance of key social roles in society account for gender differences in environmental concern. (Grattan et al., 2011) found subsequent to oil spillage among persons living in fishing communities along the Florida and adjacent Alabama coast a profound impact on their psychological adjustment and adaptation. There was also no significant difference between demographic groups on environmental worry.

Drottz-Sjoberg & Sjoberg (1990) after Chernobyl disaster, a nuclear plant accident found that there was relationship between sex and worry, female reported much more worry than male did. There is only a very small difference between male and female respondents in Sweden (Sjoberg, 1998) on worry. In Tallinn, Hokka et al. (1999) indicated that sex differences in environmental worry were small. Age co-varied with worry (Drottz-Sjoberg & Sjoberg, 1990) and there is a tendency for worry to increase with age. For (Hokka et al., 1999) in Tallinn, age differences in environmental worry were small. Herr et al. (2000) found that age did not show a significant influence on worry. Another demographic variable which is level of education had influence on worry (Drottz-Sjoberg, 1990). Some researchers (Sjoberg & Drottz-Sjoberg, 1987; Sjoberg &

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Drottz-Sjoberg, 1993) found that lower educational level is tied to higher environmental worry. Herr et al. (2000) also revealed that lower school education was associated with higher scores in environmental worry. Babalola (2010). Grattan et al. re-reported that participants with oil spill-related income loss and those with loss of job opportunities due to oil spill were less resilient and were more likely to use behavioural disengagement as a coping strategy. Eisenberger, Armeli, Fasolo, & Lynch found that length of unemployment has influence on the socio-emotional resources of individuals. Unemployment may produce feelings of frustration, loneliness, anger and emasculation. Employment status may influence environmental worry.

Tobler, Visschers & Siegrist (2012) intended to find a meaningful way to classify different ways of addressing climate change and examined which determinants influence people's willingness to engage in these behaviors. Results showed that perceived costs and perceived climate benefit turned out to be the strongest predictors for willingness to act or to support climate policy measures. The strong influence of perceived climate benefit might reflect a strategy of reducing cognitive dissonance. As high-cost behaviors are more difficult to adopt, consumers may reduce dissonance by dismissing high-cost behaviors as not effective in terms of climate mitigation. Political affiliation proved to be another strong determinant of willingness to act or support. Participants on the right wing were less willing to show indirect climate-friendly behaviors, change their mobility behaviors, and to support any type of climate mitigation policy measures. Climate-friendly low-cost behaviors, however, were not influenced by political affiliation.

In this modern world we all are less concerned about the environment. We just use the maximum of her resources and misuse the nature. So by understanding each person's worry or concern about the environment we get a clear route to the conservation of the environment. It is just an opening or a first step to the conservation of our nature.

Aim- This study aims to find out whether environmental worry differs with age, gender and educational qualification among rural population in Kerala.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

Random sampling method is used here. The sample consisting of 102 rural individual from Ernakulam district. The participants were 50 males and 52 females out of whom 50 of them below age group of 40 and 52 are in above the age of 40.

Tools

Environmental worry scale- Environmental worry scale (EWS, 1996) is a 17 item scale developed by Bowler and Schwarzer. The scale measures emotional distress from cataclysmic events. The response format is 4 point rating scale ranging from (1) no at all true (4) exactly true. The authors reported satisfactory psychometric properties for the scale.

Administration

Survey method was used to collect data for this study. Verbal concern was obtained for collecting information and the questionnaires were administered to the participants after establishing rapport with them.

RESULT & DISCUSSION

The collected data was analyzed using SPSS version 16 and the obtained results are discussed in the following sessions.

Table 1: the ‘t’ value showing significant difference due to gender and age in the variable Environmental worry

Environmental Worry	Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	‘t’ value
Gender	Male	50	43.86	7.06	2.25*
	Female	52	47.44	8.86	
Age	Below 40	50	51.86	10.55	5.12**
	Above 40	52	39.76	13.10	

Results indicate that the ‘t’ value obtained for gender difference in the variable environmental worry is 2.25 which is significant at 0.05 level. Women are found to have significantly higher levels of worry when compared to men which is in line with the finding of Drottz-Sjoberg & Sjoberg (1990) who have reported that females reported much more worry than male did. Women have a general pre disposition to be more prone to anxiety disorders which may be attributed to genetic, hormonal, environmental and cultural factors. Women also are more concerned about the health of the family and environmental degradation has a direct effect on the health of people. Men's and women's differential performance of key social roles in society also account for gender differences in environmental concern. Gould and Edelstein (2010) also support this view that young women have less control over their anxiety compared to young men and older adults. Study on “Gender and Environmental Risk Concerns” by Debra J. Davidson, he found that women tend to express higher levels of concern toward technology and the environment than do men, but that the tendency is not universal. Even though, research offer no support for various arguments that men's and women's differential performance of key social roles in society account for gender differences in environmental concern (Xiao, Chenyang; McCright & Aaron, 2012), this could be a factor which affect women.

If we think in detail about the finding of this study we can understand that women are more prone to worry. We know that anxiety disorder is twice as prevalent in women. They are the one who gave more importance and more valued their society and family. They care their children and loved ones more than anyone. We know whatever happens in our environment that affects the children first. Females are more likely to care the health and needs of their loved ones. So it

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is clear that why females worry about the environmental issues more than anyone. Females are more emotional and more attached to everyone and they care their family so that they worry more. Moreover this study was conducted in rural area, where most of the females are house wives who spend their time within their family only.

The 't' value obtained for the different age groups is 5.12 which is significant at 0.01 level. People in the below 40 age group have significantly higher levels of worry compared to people above 40. Aggregated polling data shows that concern for the environment typically declines with age. But we know there will be exception in every rule. People below 40 age group are more energetic and have more contacts with the environment. This may be the reason for having more awareness on the effects of environmental problems. As the issue became more serious, governments have started giving awareness programmes on a large scale. People's concerns about environmental problems are likely to be affected by the quality, quantity and coverage of environmental information they receive. As the young people are more exposed to such issues, they have become more sensitive to it. A study on "worry, emotion control and anxiety control in older and younger adult" give a similar kind of result, they found that young adults worry more than older adults. Young women worried more often than young men and older adults. But contradictory to this (Drottz-Sjoberg & Sjoberg, 1990) found that there is a tendency for worry to increase with age.

Table 2: The F value obtained for the variable Environmental worry based on the different levels of education

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F
Between Groups	52.58	2	26.29	0.406
Within Groups	7053.33	109	64.71	
Total	7105.92	111		

No significant difference was found between different educational groups in the variable Environmental worry. From the result it is clear that many people have awoken to the reality that our earth is in danger. But education is not found to have a role in this. This is contrary to the findings by Drottz-Sjoberg, (1990) and Steinheider & Hodapp, (1999), which says that a higher level of education correlated to less environmental worry in a significant way. This may be because of the fact that in a place like Kerala the systems provided by the government for disposing waste are quite inadequate. This makes people feel very helpless. But some researchers (Sjoberg & Drottz-Sjoberg, 1987; Sjoberg & Drottz-Sjoberg, 1993) found results opposing the above that lower educational level is tied to higher environmental worry. Herr et al. (2000) also revealed that lower school education was associated with higher scores in environmental worry. These results clearly indicate the presence of some other mediating factor which could contribute to the role of education on environmental worry.

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Matthies, Selge & Klockner (2012) found that norm activation model can be applied to pro-environmental behaviour of young children. Communication behaviour of parents had a different influence on the two respective behaviours. While parents seemed to influence their children's recycling behaviour via sanctions and their own behaviour, re-use of paper was mainly influenced via communication of problem knowledge. So such pro-environmental behaviours has their origin in educating children logically at a very young age and proper parental models.

CONCLUSION AND LIMITATION

Women have significantly higher levels of worry when compared to men. People in the below 40 age group have significantly higher levels of worry compared to people above 40. The sample size was small and hence the result obtained may not be representative of the all population. The data was collected only from one area in Ernakulum district.

IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMENDATIONS

People must have optimum level of worry about the environmental problems so that they conserve nature to some extent. Hence efforts underlining the importance of education in promoting environmental awareness and protection need to be incorporated in the curriculum and norms enforcing environmental protection has to be implemented legally at all levels of government to ensue environmentally healthy behavior.

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Childhood Psychological Abuse and Mental Health of Youth

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ABSTRACT:

Mental health is clearly an integral part of health. It is part of an individual's capacity to lead a happy and fulfilling life. As a form of child maltreatment psychological abuse can have a significant impact upon the mental health. The current study examined the influencing role of psychological abuse on mental health among 211 Keralite undergraduate youth between 18 to 24 years from data collected using Mental Health Inventory and Childhood Experiences of Care and Abuse Questionnaire-2. Results revealed average mental health of youth with no significant gender difference in mental health and in the prevalence of psychological abuse except in its severity from father. Psychological abuse significantly correlated with mental health variables. A 2 way ANOVA showed significant main effect of severe maternal psychological abuse on mental health. Severity of parental psychological abuse significantly predicted poor mental health (18.7% variability). The findings indicate the need for more effective measures to prevent psychological abuse of children.

Keywords: *Child maltreatment, Mental health, Psychological abuse, Youth.*

INTRODUCTION

Childhood experiences during the early years set a critical foundation for the entire life. The quality of early childhood experiences depends on steps taken by the family, community, and society in providing children with 'nurturing' environments. Thus optimal child well-being becomes possible with the exposure of children to safe, nurturing, and stable environments as it supports the development of their cognitive, emotional and social skills which help them to become healthy, productive adults. Exposure to adversities in childhood jeopardizes the normal growth and development of the individual (Boynton-Jarrett, 2008). In order to understand the origins of adult disorder, we need to understand early life experiences. Research must incorporate childhood relationships as an indicator of early attachment problems, trauma or adversity also.

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Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACEs) are stressful or traumatic experiences in childhood including abuse, neglect, and a range of household dysfunction with a serious impact on the health, well-being and development of children throughout their lives (Anda, Croft & Felitti, 1999; Anda, 2009). Child maltreatment is the most common and significant component of ACEs that has become a huge global problem, a human rights violation and a complex public health issue today, with a serious impact. Psychological or emotional abuse is a significant type of child maltreatment. World Health Organization defines psychological or emotional abuse as failure of a caregiver to provide an appropriate and supportive environment, and includes acts that have an adverse effect on the emotional health and development of a child (Krug, Mercy, Dahlberg, & Zwi, 2002).

PSYCHOLOGICAL ABUSE

Psychological abuse is the most pervasive and damaging type of abuse (McGee & Wolfe, 1991; Hart, Binggeli, & Brassard, 1997) that has specific long lasting impact (Nicholas & Bieber, 1996; Mullen, Martin, Anderson, Romans, & Herbison, 1996). It is the most underreported form of maltreatment and often not recognized when other forms of maltreatment coexist (Trickett, Mennen, Kim, & Sang, 2009). According to Attachment theory, childhood emotional abuse by caregivers leads to development of insecure attachment in the individual which in turn leads to formation of maladaptive schemas (Taussig & Culhane, 2010).

Considerable amount of data is available today to confirm that the phenomenon of child maltreatment is prevalent in India (Asian Centre for Human Rights, 2013; Anand, 2005). UNICEF (2009) reported high prevalence of child maltreatment in the Asia-Pacific region including India in one of its multi-country study. Yelling and screaming at the child (70%) and calling the child abusive names (29%) are common practices of Indian parents (Krug et al., 2002). Abrahams & Casey (2007) found “moderate” abuse (61.8%) or abuse in “severe” and “very severe” categories (36.6 %) experienced by majority of children in the study held in Rajasthan, India. Verbal and psychological abuse was highly prevalent among them. Keralite youth also experience such maltreatment as it was revealed through several research studies. In one of such studies, a cross-sectional, population-based survey among 1668 mothers, aged 18-49, covering rural, urban and coastal areas, Nair, Ramohanan, Remadevi, Nair, Ghosh & Leena (2009) reported use of severe verbal discipline (62%) and severe physical abuse (50%). Normative and abusive practices are highly prevalent in the Kerala community with mothers playing a significant role in disciplining the child.

MENTAL HEALTH

The concept of mental health has been studied extensively in the past. Gains in mental health predicts declines in mental illness and losses in mental health predicts increases in mental illness (Keyes, Dhingra & Simoes, 2010). Compared to Western countries, the prevalence of mental disorders among adolescents and youth is low in India (Srinath, Girimaji, Gururaj, Seshadri, Subbakrishna, Bhola & Kumar, 2005). A Kerala inquiry (Rajan, Mohamed, Kumar & Mohammed, 2002) identified gender-related issues in mental health, human well being and stress experience among all members of age group of 15-59 years in addition to responsive persons

between 60-69 years in a randomly selected sample of 1000 households. Men had relatively better sense of well being and better mental health than women.

Issues in mental health and behavior manifest in children during their adolescence. Mumthas and Muhsina (2014) reports prevalence of behavioural (27%) and emotional problems (32%) among adolescents in Kerala with psycho-social problems being very common among them. Further they report suicidal feelings (4%), feelings that they are not respecting others (9%) etc. More than one third of the sample were talkative, unorganized, hyperactive and introverts (33%).

PSYCHOLOGICAL ABUSE AND MENTAL HEALTH

Children's growth and development is very much influenced by the family environment, particularly the parenting style (Taylor, Manganello & Lee, Rice, 2010). Psychological maltreatment received during the first 3 years has profound impact on the individual as it is the period of rapid growth and development. Children with impairment in security of attachment develop problems (Sroufe, 2005) in later life including insecure attachment in adulthood (Riggs & Kaminski, 2010). Peer relations, care giving and caretaking, intimacy, conflict resolution, sexual functioning and relational aggression are some of the aspects affected. Their beliefs about themselves and about themselves in relation to other people affect their cognitive schemas and, thereby, influencing their psychological adjustment (Wright, Crawford & Del Castillo, 2009). Without intervention, the cycle of psychological abuse is often repeated in the next generation (Riggs & Kaminski, 2010). The negative effects of severe emotional and sensory deprivation on later IQ, executive function and memory, psychological processing, attachment and psychiatric disorders is also revealed (Zeanah, Egger, & Smyke, 2009).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

This non-experimental, quantitative research is an exploratory survey conducted in selected Arts and Science Colleges of Kottayam district in Kerala, South India during April-May 2013. A total of 224 undergraduate students randomly selected using a sampling frame, from a total of 600 students at the institutions constituted the sample. One student was excluded from the study as he reported to have dangerous physical illness and 12 were excluded as the data were incomplete. Thus the final sample consisted of 211 students. The tools used after testing reliability took around 20 minutes to complete and it measured (1) Demographic characteristics, (2) Mental Health and (3) Psychological abuse. Formal administrative permission from authorities, ethical clearance from Ethics committee of Jubilee Mission Medical College Hospital and Research Institute, Thrissur and informed written consent from subjects were obtained before carrying out the study. After screening, students were informed about the aims and objectives of the study. In order to safeguard autonomy and identity youth were assigned IDs, excluding own names. Participation was voluntary.

Instruments

1. Mental Health Inventory (MHI) (Veit, & Ware, 1983): The Mental Health Inventory has been standardized in 1983 and it has 38 items. It is designed to measure psychological health and mental health status of an individual within the past month. The MHI consists of six subscales (Anxiety, Depression, Loss of behavioural /emotional control, General positive affect, Emotional

ties and Life satisfaction), two global scales (Psychological Distress and Psychological Well-being), and Global Mental Health Index score. Internal consistency of various aspects of the scale ranges from .81 to .96 and authors also reported moderate test-retest reliability (.56 to .64). This study utilized the global scales and the Mental health Index Scale.

2. Childhood Experiences of Care and Abuse Questionnaire-2 (Bifulco, 2005)- Psychological abuse scale: It is a questionnaire version of the Childhood Experience of Care and Abuse interview (Bifulco, Brown & Harris, 1994) with acceptable sensitivity and specificity (Bifulco, Bernazzani, Morgan & Jacobs, 2005). It consists of sections on parental loss, parental care (neglect and antipathy), support in childhood, and, physical, psychological and sexual abuse before age 17 in adolescents or adults. A Likert scale on psychological abuse consisting of 17 items separately measures psychological abuse from both mother and father figures was used for the current study.

Statistical analysis was done with SPSS 20 for Windows using descriptive statistics, Correlation, independent sample t test, Chi square test, 2 way ANOVA and Multiple Regression.

RESULTS

The sample (N=211) for the current study consisted 75 females (35.5%) and 136 males (64.5 %) with a mean age ($\pm$ SD) of 18.76 ± 1.62 years. All were undergraduate students and 71.6% lived in rural area with their parents (84.4%). Most of their parents had completed higher secondary schooling (Mother-53.60%, Father-48.30%). Majority of fathers (60.20%) were self employed and mothers (71.10%) were home makers. More than half of the sample (54%) had a monthly income between 5000 and 10000 Rs. Majority of youth had been brought up by their biological parents (Father- 96.2%; Mother- 97.2%). Between an average age (mean) of 2 (Father) and 5 (Mother) years, youth began to experience psychological abuse from parents.

Analysis showed that the mean Global Mental health Index score of the sample was $156.73 \pm 21.536 (\pm$ SD) which indicated average level of Mental health. On analysis no statistically significant association was found between mental health variables such as Psychological distress, Psychological well-being, Global Mental health Index score and demographic factors such as gender, place of residence, parents' education and occupation, monthly income of the family and religion (Table not shown).

Table 1. Comparison between Mean Mental Health Scores of Males and Females

						n=211	
	Male		Female		t	df	p*
Mental Health	M	SD	M	SD			
Psychological Distress	60.26	16.23	63.12	14.07	-1.281	209	.202
Psychological Well-being	55.01	9.93	52.72	9.28	1.643	209	.102
Mental Health Index	158.61	22.63	153.23	19.05	1.766	209	.079

*p< .05 level

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As shown in Table 1. The t test for comparison of mean scores of Psychological distress ($t_{(209)} = -1.28, p = .202$) and Psychological well-being ($t_{(209)} = 1.643, p = .102$) dimensions of mental health among males and females showed no significant differences. Similarly, no significant difference was observed in Mental Health Index ($t_{(209)} = 1.766, p = .079$) also.

Table 2. Association between Psychological abuse and Gender

Psychological abuse							n=211	
	Male		Female		Total		χ^2	p*
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
No psychological abuse group	38	18.01	20	9.48	58	27.49	.039	0.843
Psychological abuse group	98	72.1	55	73.3	153	72.5		

*p< 0.05 level

Table 2. shows that about 75% of the sample had experienced psychological abuse at least once either from mother/mother figure or father/father figure during the first 17 years of life. Chi square test shows that there is no significant gender difference ($\chi^2_{(1)} = .039, p > 0.05$ level) in the prevalence of psychological abuse among youth.

Table 3. Correlation between Psychological abuse and Mental health

				n=211		
				Psychological distress	Psychological well-being	Mental health index
Psychological abuse (Severity) (Mother)				.311***	-.294***	-.345***
Psychological abuse (Severity) (Father)				.395***	-.283***	-.389***
Psychological (Mother)	abuse	(Frequency)		.198***	-.203***	-.237***
Psychological (Father)	abuse	(Frequency)		.249***	-.213***	-.263***

***p< .001 level

Table 3. indicates that mental health of the sample is significantly related to psychological abuse. Psychological distress is positively correlated with severity and frequency of psychological abuse from mother and father. Whereas Psychological well being and Mental health index are significantly negatively correlated with severity and frequency of psychological abuse from mother and father.

A two-way ANOVA was carried out to evaluate the influence of psychological abuse on mental health.

Table 4. Summary of 2 x 2 ANOVA of Mental health by Psychological abuse

	Mean	SD	df	F	p
Psychological abuse (Severity) (Mother)					
High	140.19	17.994	2, 86	4.877	.01**
Low	159.92	17.394	2, 86		
Psychological abuse (Severity) (Father)					
High	157.71	17.92	2, 86	1.339	.268
Low	140.69	20.278	2, 86		
Psychological abuse (Severity) (Mother)* Psychological abuse (Severity) (Father)			4, 86	1.785	.139

**p < 0.01 level

As shown in the Table 4. There is significant difference in the means of Mental Health Index of youth belonging to high and low groups of psychological abuse of mother, $F(2,86) = 4.877$, $p = .01$. But neither there was main effect for psychological abuse of father nor there was an interaction effect despite the tendency of the scores of youth in the severe psychological abuse group (mother) (140.19 ± 17.994) to be much lower than that of mild psychological abuse group (mother) (159.92 ± 17.394) and severe psychological abuse group (father) (157.71 ± 17.92). Although only the main effect for psychological abuse (mother) was significant, there is a reason to think that a possible interaction effect exists since low mean mental health index scores are associated with having had psychological abuse of severe nature from mother and having psychological abuse of mild severity from father. In contrast, youth with mild psychological abuse from mother and severe psychological abuse from father were affected only to a much smaller extent by having above average mental health.'

Table 5. Multiple Linear Regression Analyses predicting Mental Health from Psychological Abuse

Predictors	Model 1		Model 2	
	F	β	F	β
Psychological abuse (Severity) (Mother)	25.212***	-.227***	14.035***	-.352**
Psychological abuse (Severity) (Father)		-.300***		-.433***
Psychological abuse (Frequency) (Mother)				.155
Psychological abuse (Frequency) (Father)				.150
Adjusted R ²	.187		.199	
F Change	25.212***		2.495***	

p < 0.01 level; *p < 0.01 level

The regression analyses (Table. 5) taking psychological abuse (severity and frequency) from both parents were statistically significant models (Model 1- $F(2, 208) = 254.212$, $p < .001$; Model 2- $F(4, 206) = 14.035$, $p < .001$), indicating that both severity and frequency of

psychological abuse (inclusion in the model) from parents are good predictors of mental health index. Model 1 accounted for 18.7% of the variability and the model 2 accounted for 19.9% of the variability as indexed by the adjusted R^2 statistic. Psychological abuse (Severity) (Father) as indexed by its β value of $-.30$ (model 1) and $-.433$ (model 2), was shown to have the strongest relationship to mental health index. Frequency of psychological abuse from both parents did not predict mental health index significantly though inclusion of these variables improved the strength of the model slightly.

DISCUSSION

On the whole, mental health of Keralite youth is found to be average and no gender differences were observed whereas literature provide findings that females having lesser mental health compared to males (Rajan et.al., 2002; Mumthas & Muhsina, 2014). About 75% of the sample had experienced psychological abuse at least once either from mother/mother figure or father/father figure during the first 17 years of life. But there was no significant gender difference observed in the prevalence of it though severe psychological abuse from father/father figure was more prevalent among male youth. This finding has both supportive and contradictory evidences from the literature. Intra-familial childhood emotional or psychological violence is reported more amongst females whereas prevalence of extra familial emotional violence seems to be equally high in both males and females (Cawson, Wattam, Brooker, & Kelly, 2000).

Mental health was significantly correlated with psychological abuse. Youth who had experienced psychological abuse demonstrated lesser mental health compared to those who have not experienced psychological abuse in childhood. While psychological distress was elevated in abused group, psychological well-being showed reduction with increasing severity and frequency of psychological abuse. Overall mental health also decreased as the severity and frequency of psychological abuse increased. Thus it is clear that psychological abuse reduces youth's mental health by increasing psychological distress and reducing psychological well-being. A two-way ANOVA too reiterates this with the evidence for significant differences in mental health index based on the severity of psychological abuse from mother. There is a possibility of psychological abuse from one parental figure particularly of mother making significant differences in mental health in the presence of psychological abuse from father as shown in this study. Low mental health index was associated with having had psychological abuse of severe nature from mother and having psychological abuse of mild severity from father although it was not statistically significant.

Psychological abuse from parents predicted poor mental health in this study. Although frequency of abuse alone did not predict significant variations, it is found to be a significant factor in the context of severe psychological abuse. While severity of abuse from both parents accounted for 18.7% variability, along with frequency of abuse, it contributed only 19.9% variability in mental health. Thus severity emerges as the key aspect of psychological abuse to be concerned about. Again, among parental figures, severity of psychological abuse from father predicts more negative changes in mental health which becomes a matter of concern in the context

of current social changes. A growing body of literature supports the negative impact of childhood maltreatment on mental health across the life span. Keyes, Eaton, Krueger, McLaughlin, Wall, Grant, and Hasin (2012) observed that childhood maltreatment results in common psychiatric disorders and this association operates through latent liabilities to experience internalizing and externalizing psychopathology. Specific types of maltreatment exhibit specific patterns of association with internalizing or externalizing dimensions. Increased aggression and attempted suicide, social problems, delinquencies are reported from psychological unavailability and neglect in early childhood among adolescents by Iwaniec, Larkin, and Higgins (2006). Most psychologically abused adolescents in their sample had at least 1 diagnosis of mental illness. Early interactions with parents facilitate development of internal working models of self and self-in-relation to others that influence later cognitive schemas and psychological adjustment. Exposure to childhood abuse and neglect may negatively affect attachment relationships. Emotional abuse and neglect also influence later symptoms of anxiety and depression. Negative schemas of shame and vulnerability to harm are related to emotional neglect (Wright et.al, 2009).

All types of abuse involve emotional abuse and this makes emotional abuse a complex issue. Considering the significance of mental health, the above findings hold significant implications although this study consisted of youth from general population only. Emotional abuse in childhood is a significant risk factor in hindering healthy early child development and parent-child bonding and attachment because it is pervasive and persistent. Parental education on child rearing practices, training of health professionals in prevention and management of adverse impact of emotional abuse of children, and, policy making with regard to increasing awareness in prevention of it are very essential.

CONCLUSION

Improving one's psychological health is always rewarding as it benefits all aspects of one's life. Childhood psychological abuse may create negative views of self and others and it may result in maladaptive coping, ineffective social functioning and poor mental health. Being one of the serious issues related to child health, psychological abuse of children must require adequate attention from families, health professionals and policy makers for its effective prevention and management of emotionally abused.

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APPENDIX

Table A1.

Correlation between Psychological abuse and Mental health variables
n=211

	Psychological distress	Psychological well-being	Mental health index	M	SD
Psychological distress	-			61.28	1.55
Psychological well-being	-.551***	-		54.19	9.75
Mental health index	-.886***	.802***	-	156.73	21.54
Psychological abuse (Severity) (Mother)	.311***	-.294***	-.345***	2.95	3.85
Psychological abuse (Severity) (Father)	.395***	-.283***	-.389***	2.35	3.35
Psychological abuse (Frequency) (Mother)	.198***	-.203***	-.237***	3.92	4.88
Psychological abuse (Frequency) (Father)	.249***	-.213***	-.263***	3.26	6.00

***p< .001 level

A study the Personality and achievement Motivation of among High School Students of Jalgaon District

Rani Tripathi*

ABSTRACT:

This paper aims to study the achievement motivation and personality of high school students in relation to the type of urban and rural area. The study was conducted on 120 students (60 boys 60 girls) studying in high schools selected purposively from Jalgaon district of Maharashtra state. Intact classes of VIII to X were taken from the four schools. For the collection of necessary information investigator used Personality Inventory (M.P.I.) by Jalota, S.S. and Kapoor, S.D. (1975) (Hindi Version). And Achievement Motivation Test by Gopal Rao (1974). To find the significance of difference between the various groups 't' test was applied. Results indicated that rural and urban area high school students differ significantly on Personality but gender wise and area wise students do not differ significantly on achievement motivation.

Keywords: Achievement, Motivation, Personality, High School

INTRODUCTION

High school students utilized most of their time in school environment. This is important stage of personality development of student's life as well as its motivational for achievement. Between this stage students are get efforts to develop their area of personality and achievement. Every School, High school and colleges try to provide maximum educational and personality related skills to their students but some student not shown interested for grab this opportunity, and not fulfill the expectations of their parents and educational institutes. Most of the students are not able to take proper decisions due to support, with support they drives to accomplish given task, most of students accomplished task as per their priority and values of the task and its importance. Achievement motivation concept developed by social psychologist McClelland to denote the strong urge felt by an individual or society for achievement in various aspects of life that satisfies the need of self-esteem. The achievement motive is the deciding factor in attaining success in different fields.

Personality traits referred to the stable characteristics which are psychological in nature and provide reasons for person's behavior. These traits described a person and determine his emotional, cognitive, and behavioral interpersonal, experiential, attitudinal, and motivational styles that explain behavior in different situations.

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Funder (2002) described personality as pattern of thought, emotion, and behavior. Personality is a multifaceted concept which is difficult to describe. Allport (1937) and Murray (1938) defined personality but wide-ranging definitions covering all aspects like intra psychic, qualities of mind and body, relations to others, and personal goals is yet to surface. According to Hogan (1991), personality refers to the social reputation, the way an individual is perceived by others.

OBJECTIVES

The main objective of the present study is to compare Personality (neuroticism and extraversion) and Achievement Motivation among high school students on the basis of rural and urban area.

1. To study the personality and achievement motivation of among high school students.
2. To study the personality and achievement motivation with respect to male and female of among high school students.
3. To study the personality and achievement motivation with respect to high school students of rural and urban.

HYPOTHESIS:

- H1.** There will be significant difference between Extroversion personality trait of boys and girls of urban area.
- H2.** There will be significant difference between Extroversion personality trait of boys and girls of rural area.
- H3.** There will be significant difference between Neuroticism personality trait of boys and girls of urban area.
- H4.** There will be significant difference between Neuroticism personality trait of boys and girls of rural area.
- H5.** There will be significant difference between achievement motivation of boys and girls of urban area.
- H6.** There will be significant difference between achievement motivation of boys and girls of rural area.

METHODOLOGY:

Sample

The sample comprised of total 120 High School students. It includes 60 male and 60 female students were randomly chosen from the 8th and 10th standards of high school from the Jalgaon district. The distribution of the total sample is depicted as follows:

Area →		Rural	Urban	Total
Sex	Male	30	30	60
	Female	30	30	60
		60	60	120

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Research design:

Area (A) →		Rural (A1)	Urban (A2)
Sex (B)	Male (B1)	(A1), (B1)	(A2), (B1)
	Female (B2)	(A1), (B2)	(A2), (B2)

Area (A):Rural

(A1)

Urban (A2)

1. Sex (B)

:Male

(B1)

Female (B2)

Statistical Analysis:

In the present study to compare the rural and urban area boys and girls on the Achievement Motivation and personality one way analysis of a range of was used. For the purpose of the analysis, t-test one way ANNOVA, Descriptive statistics statistical techniques were used. The level of significance was set at 0.05 levels.

Tool Used

The following tools were decided to be used..

1. **Eysenck's Maudsley Personality Inventory (M.P.I.) by Jalota, S. S. and Kapoor, S.D. (1975) (Hindi Version).** The Mandsley personality inventory (MPI) is a brief but standard as well as an easily administered and scored inventory which is design for accessing introversion and extroversion dimension of personality. It is suitable normal and abnormal adults and also for adolescents. Instead of all the 14 factors only two factors were considered viz. reserved warm hearted, obedient-assertive and shy-venturesome which was supposed to be most relevant to the study.
2. **Achievement Motivation Test by Gopal Rao (1974).** It was revalidated through the expert's opinion and the reliability was also found by test – retest method. In this test having 20 statements with two options is used. The General Achievement Related options are assigned a score of one where as the High Achievement Related options are assigned a score of three. The scores in this scale range from 20 to 60.

DELIMITATIONS

To study was delimited with respect to its area, design, methodology, sample, tools and techniques for the study. Some of these are mentioned below:

- The investigation was confined to the high school level only.

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- The present study was limited to the Jalgaon District only.
- The data was only collected by students ranging between the age group of 13 to 16 years were selected on random basis.
- The measurement of personality traits was limited only to neuroticism and extraversion traits only.

H1. There will be significant difference between Extroversion personality trait of boys and girls of urban area.

Table 1. Mean, Standard Deviations, and t-Value of the rural and urban area (N=30 in Each Group) for Achievement Motivation

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	't'	Remarks
Boys	30	28.66	7.63	4.61	Significant *
Girls	30	19.9	5.87		

* Significant at .05 Level.

The above table no. '1' shows the descriptive statistics of the personality. The Mean of boys 28.66 and for girls 19.9, whereas for male S.D. 7.63 and S.D. for girls 5.87, obtained t-value is 4.61 which is found significant at 0.05 level. Therefore, it can be concluded that the H02 "There will be significant difference between Extroversion personality trait of boys and girls of urban area." is selected.

H2. There will be significant difference between Extroversion personality trait of boys and girls of rural area.

Table 2. Mean, Standard Deviation, and t -Value of the rural and urban area (N=30 in Each Group) for Personality

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	't'	Remarks
Boys	30	12.6	4.31	6.78	Significant *
Girls	30	19.86	5.29		

* Significant at .05 Level.

The above table no. '2' shows the descriptive statistics of the personality. The Mean of boys 12.6 and for girls 19.86, whereas for male S.D. 4.31 and S.D. for girls 5.29, obtained t-value is 6.78 which is found significant at 0.05 level. Therefore, it can be concluded that the H02 "There will be significant difference between Extroversion personality trait of boys and girls of rural area." is selected.

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H3. There will be significant difference between Neuroticism personality trait of boys and girls of urban area.

Table 3. Mean, Standard Deviation, and t Value of the rural and urban area (N=30 in Each Group) for Achievement Motivation

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	't'	Remarks
Boys	30	18.66	5.43	1.97	Significant *
Girls	30	21.33	4.87		

* Significant at .05 Level.

The above table no. '3' shows the descriptive statistics of the personality. The Mean of boys 12.6 and for girls, whereas for male S.D. 4.31 and S.D. for girls 5.29, obtained t-value is 6.78 which is found significant at 0.05 level. Therefore, it can be concluded that the H02 "There will be significant difference between Neuroticism personality trait of boys and girls of urban area." is selected.

H4. There will be significant difference between Neuroticism personality trait of boys and girls of rural area.

Table 4. Mean, Standard Deviations, and t Value of the rural and urban area (N=30 in Each Group) for Achievement Motivation

* Significant at .05 Level.

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	't'	Remarks
Boys	30	18.83	12.16	.33	Significant *
Girls	30	19.86	10.81		

The above table no. '4' shows the descriptive statistics of the personality. The Mean of boys 12.6 and for girls, whereas for male S.D. 4.31 and S.D. for girls 5.29, obtained t-value is 6.78 which is found significant at 0.05 level. Therefore, it can be concluded that the H02 "There will be significant difference between Neuroticism personality trait of boys and girls of rural area" is selected.

H5. There will be significant difference between achievement motivation of boys and girls of urban area.

Table 5. Mean, Standard Deviations, and t Value of the rural and urban area (N=30 in Each Group) for Achievement Motivation

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	't'	Remarks
Boys	30	40.06	7.05	1.74	Significant *
Girls	30	43.13	5.21		

* Significant at .05 Level.

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The above table no. '5' shows the descriptive statistics of the personality. The Mean of boys 12.6 and for girls, whereas for male S.D. 4.31 and S.D. for girls 5.29, obtained t-value is 6.78 which is found significant at 0.05 level. Therefore, it can be concluded that the H02 "There will be significant difference between achievement motivation of boys and girls of urban area." is selected.

H6. There will be significant difference between achievement motivation of boys and girls of rural area.

Table 6. Mean, Standard Deviations, and t Value of the rural and urban area (N=30 in Each Group) for Achievement Motivation

Group	N	Mean	S.D.	't'	Remarks
Boys	30	41.33	7.02	0.76	Not Significant *
Girls	30	42.66	7.28		

* Significant at .05 Level.

The above table no. '6' shows the descriptive statistics of the personality. The Mean of boys 12.6 and for girls, whereas for male S.D. 4.31 and S.D. for girls 5.29, obtained t-value is 6.78 which is found significant at 0.05 level. Therefore, it can be concluded that the H02 "There will be significant difference between achievement motivation of boys and girls of rural area." is rejected.

DISCUSSION

Personality and achievement of among High School Students of Jalgaon District were found significant. The finding of this study is supported by Vijaylaxmi and Natesan (1992) found that girl learners showed, a higher mean academic achievement motivation and achievement in comparison to boy learners. Joshi (2000) found that significant difference existed between girls of urban and rural area on neuroticism, extroversion and academic achievement.

Whereas, Ahmed (1998) found that there was no significant influence of gender on achievement motivation. Few studies showed positive relationship between academic achievement and different personality factors as Rajiv (1983), Multivariate analysis provided evidence that a student's personality and achievement, in particular the secondary school if get right direction and guidance then it will more helpful to increase level of motivation and personality development. On the other hand, students who try to developed their personality as better than others may be get positive confident and motivate for high achievement. A well personality helps to motivate better achievement and future success.

CONCLUSION

The findings of the study revealed that academic climate have a strong and significant effect on personality of high school students. Excellent high school environment builds effective personality and motivate for high achievement, while poor high school environment lead deprived personality and achievement motivation among high school students. The study also explored in detail the congruence between personality and achievement motivation of the students. Significant difference were found in Achievement Motivation of boys and girls, significant difference was found in rural and urban area. Positive correlation was found between Personality and Achievement Motivation in High School boys and girls. The findings of the study may be helpful in better understanding for students and Psychologist; school counselors and also provide a practical guide for the educational policy makers.

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Workplace Conflict: Indigenous Studies on Indonesian Employees

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ABSTRACT:

The work place owes itself elements of cultures, personality, perception, and other things from many cultures, upbringing, and other behavioral factors that employees are exposed to. This variety leads to the complex dynamics of living people, which includes possible conflicts with one another. Conflicts take place because people have needs, wants, and interests to meet. And these are prone to words, actions, and decisions from others. The non-assertive typical characteristic of the Indonesian certainly affects the dynamics of conflicts they experience. This research aims to explore some aspects of that; the definition of conflicts from the Indonesian perspective, factors that lead to conflicts, and ways to solve conflicts by Indonesian workers. The approach used is Indigenous Psychology that emphasizes on studying the attitude and thought that a person has in his/her cultural context. The participants are 700 Indonesian employees. Data are gathered using open-ended questionnaires designed by the researcher to reveal conflicts at work among Indonesian employees. Results indicate that respondents define a conflict as a common phenomenon that may happen at work. Another respondent suggest that a conflict is a lack of cooperation. Respondents argue that conflict is simply a matter of difference, and the remaining and something discomfort. Factors that trigger conflicts are; negative personality of co-workers, difference in how to handle work, ineffective communication, jealousy against co-workers, lack of work commitment, absence of cooperation, lack of work satisfaction and personal matters outside work. Ways to resolve conflicts are; interpersonal communication of those involved in a conflict, general consensus, by being patient and willing to accept, reporting to a supervisor, self-retrospect, and improving passion for work.

Keywords: *work conflict, employees, Indonesian*

INTRODUCTION

Conflict is a real thing in one's life, because it is a social process of people who are trying to reach the goal by the opposing party opponent, and after all, it is made so that others will take notice or appreciate his achievements. Dynamics of complex life is seen from the many conflicts going on in people's lives. According to Mangkunagara (2009), conflict occurs because what is expected by a person against himself, other people, the organization with the fact that was expected.

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There are four forms of conflict within the organization (Mangkunagara, 2009), the first one is hierarchy conflict that is, the conflict at the level of the organizational hierarchy. The second form is functional conflict that is, the conflict of the various departments within the organization functions. The third form is line staff conflict, namely, the conflict between the leaders of the unit staff staff-related chiefly authority / authorities working. The fourth forms are the formal-informal conflict, namely, the conflict is related to the norms prevailing in the informal organization with formal organizations.

Sources of conflict can emerge from the self, the environment, or other people who have different attitudes, opinions, means, purpose or value system espoused (Anoraga, 2006). Causes of conflict in the organization according to Luthans (2002) is the coordination of work that is not done, the dependence of the performance of duties, tasks that are not clear (no job description), differences in work orientation, differences in understanding of organizational goals, differences in perception, the system competence incentive (reward), and motivational strategies are not appropriate. Meanwhile, according to Ranupandojo (2006) causes of conflict include many scarce resources, differences in goals, interdependence in carrying out the work, the differences in values and perceptions, one's style of working, unclear organizational and communication problems.

Work conflict has negative impact on employees performance and job satisfaction (Barki & Hartwick, 2001). Conflict also result high employees turnover and job dissatisfaction causing low productivity (Hom & Kinicki, 2001). Although work conflict seems to produce ineffectively in the workplace, work conflict will result good or bad effect depends on the way of employee conflict management (Rahim, 2002; Callanan & Benzing, 2006). Mangkunagara (2009) explains conflict management can be done in several ways including: problem solving, high-level objectives (libordinate goal), the expansion of the source, to avoid conflicts, paving the conflict (smoothing), compromise, the order of authority (authoritative commands), change the human variables (altering the human variables), change the structural variables, and identify a common enemy.

Another way that can be used to reduce conflict is an avoidance, cooperation, and discussion exactly identify the sources of conflict to determine each issue, bringing the two opposite sides of the conflict to their own opinion and views and feelings respectively regardless who is right or wrong (Siagian, 2005).

According to the results of CPP Global Human Capital Report (2008) found that the majority of employees (85%) had to deal with conflict and 29% always or often. Percent in Germany last digit to 56%, while in Ireland (37%) and the USA (36%). The main causes of workplace conflict is seen as a clash of personality and ego (49%), followed by stress (34%), and heavy workload (33%). Culture also plays a part in the cause of perception, as the Brazilian workers are more likely to see the clash of values as the main cause of conflict (24%), in France 36% of employees at the lack of honesty as a key factor, compared with the global average of 26%.

According to the results of a study of conflict in the Canadian workplace (2008) this study found that nearly all HR professionals (99%) deal with conflict. The most common cause of conflict is a war of ego and personality differences (86%), poor leadership (73%), lack of honesty (67%), stress (64%), and the difference in values (59%). Results of this study cannot be generalized so obviously because the values of different cultures have an influence on the cognitive, emotional, motivational and individual behavioral systems (Markus & Kitayama, 1991).

According to Hoftstede (2001) culture is the collective programming of the sort of way of thinking, being and behaving that result in differences in the aspects of one's life, namely beliefs, attitudes and behaviors. So, in this case culture forming individual beliefs, attitude, attitudes and behaviors with a special way through the process of collective learning.

Characteristics of Indonesian cannot be equated with the characteristics of German, Irish, USA, Brazil, France, and Canada. Indonesian society refers to two basic rules, namely the principle of harmony and respect for the principle (Suseno, 1993). Harmony principle says that in every human situation should be such that it would not cause conflict, while respecting the principle demands that human beings in a manner of speaking and carrying oneself always show respect towards others in accordance with the degree and position. Principles aimed at maintaining harmony in a state of harmonious society (Suseno, 1993). There is a harmonious state in which all parties are at peace with each other, like collaboration, mutual acceptance, in an atmosphere of calm and agreed. Pillars means trying to avoid the outbreak of conflicts.

A conflict in the Indonesian community is usually broken when the conflicting interests (Suseno, 1993). If there have been interests conflicting then softened with traditional techniques compromise and integrated into the existing order of the group so as not to conflict arises. Indonesian people as far as possible to avoid the physical and inner conflict with the authorities, others, and the environment.

METHOD

Researchers used a type of indigenous psychology research. Indigenous psychology is an approach that emphasizes the study of behavior and thinking in the context of one's culture (Kim and Berry, 1993). Participants in this study are 700 Indonesian people, who work as civil servants and private sector employees. This study uses a data collection tool in the form of an open-ended questionnaire that was developed by researchers working to uncover conflicts.

Table I. Unit Analysis

Unit Analysis	Sub Unit Analysis
Work conflict	1. What is workplace conflict according to Indonesian employees ? 2. What are the primary factors affecting the appearance of work conflict on Indonesian employees ? 3. What kinds of Work conflict often happens in the workplace of Indonesian employees ? 4. How do Indonesian employees resolve work conflict? 5. What is the impact of work conflict among Indonesian employees ?

The data collected from the open-ended questionnaire were analyzed using indigenous psychology approach. The process of data analysis starts from the tabulation of response data that has been collected from the participants open-ended questionnaire, then the answer is then cut in order to do the preliminary coding, axial coding, and cross-tabulation. Preliminary coding was sorting through the responses according to the similarity of the response. The similarity of responses judged not by researchers but pure interpretation of the word or phrase that describes the response of the participants appeared to open-ended questions.

Axial coding is to recognize and make the first researcher to be familiar to the participants' responses. After researchers familiar with participant response, the next new researchers do coding and category. Axial coding process is done by a combination of the responses of participants who possess similarities. Cross-tabulation is made of the percentage of participants who had clustered coding results.

Coding is done for several times depending on the diversity of research participants answer. Coding is done starting from the specific nature become more common. This phase is done on all open-ended questions in the questionnaire one by one. This analysis is done by dividing the research questions in categories based on frequency tables.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Field Findings from the respondent characteristics are as follows:

Table II. Demography of the Respondent

Characteristic		Total	(%)
Age (years)	<20	61	8.714
	20 - 30	370	52.857
	31 - 40	104	14.857
	41 - 50	119	17
	> 50	46	6.571
Total		700	100
Gender	Male	363	51.857
	Female	337	48.143
Total		700	100
Occupation	Civil servant	154	22
	NON-Civil servant	546	78
Total		700	100
Total		697	99.571
Not Identified		3	0.429

Field findings from the result of analysis process are as follows:

Indonesian employee's perspective on work conflict

Table III shows Indonesian employee's perspective on work conflict. 35.286 % respondents describe work conflict as a work problem which must overcome, 32.143 % respondents consider work conflict as a lack of cooperation in the workplace, 22 % respondents define work conflict as the differences occur in the workplace, 2.571 % describe work conflict as a discomfort situation and 8 % respondents have uncategorized answer.

Table III. Indonesian employee's perspective on work conflict

Category	Total	%
Work problem	247	35.286
No cooperation	225	32.143
Differences	154	22
Discomfort	18	2.571
Others	56	8
Total	700	100

Factors that trigger work conflict among Indonesian employees

Workplace Conflict: Indigenous Studies on Indonesian Employees

Table IV describe factors that trigger work conflict among Indonesian employees. Most of respondent consider personal negative nature as a main problem that trigger work conflict. Meanwhile, differences way in finishing the work, lack of communication and jealousy because of different job achievement, poor of work commitment, lack of cooperation among teamwork and job dissatisfaction are being the secondary reasons for work conflict. Personal problem outside work also provokes work conflict although it is not significant. 11.8 % respondents have uncategorized answer.

Table IV. Factors that trigger work conflict among Indonesian employees

Category	Total	%
Personal Negative Nature	505	24.048
Differences In Finishing the Work	327	15.571
Communication	258	12.286
Jealousy	218	10.381
Work commitment	207	9.857
Lack of Cooperation	154	7.333
Job dissatisfaction	138	6.571
Personal problems outside work	45	2.143
Others	248	11.810
Total	2100	100

Ways used by Indonesian employees to overcome work conflicts

Table V describe ways used by Indonesian employees to overcome work conflicts. There are five ways used to overcome work conflict. They are : individual communication (talking directly to person who caused the conflict), discussion (group communication), patience and receive (do nothing), reporting and protest to the supervisor, introspection, keep working and add excitement.

Tabel 5. Ways used by Indonesian employees to overcome work conflicts

Category	Total	%
Individual Communication	183	26.143
Discussion/ Group communication	156	22.286
Patience And Receive	129	18.429
Discussed over/ Reporting / Protest	32	4.572
Introspection	18	2.571
Keep Working / Add Excitement	13	1.857
Others	169	24.143
Total	700	100

Effects of work conflict among Indonesian employees

This research found six effects of work conflict among Indonesian employees (Table VI). The effect caused by work conflict are disharmony social relationship, low of work motivation, discomfort feeling, better work performance and no effect at all.

Table VI. Effects of work conflict among Indonesian Employees

Category	Total	%
Disharmony Social Relationships	210	30
Low work motivation/spirit	199	28.429
Discomfort feeling	101	14.429
Better Work Performance	11	1.571
No effects	5	0.714
Others	174	24.857
Total	700	100

DISCUSSION

Conflict is a disagreement between what is expected by a person against himself, other people, the organization with the fact what is expected (Mangkunagara, 2009). According to Robbins (2008) conflict is a process that begins when one party has the perception that another party has negatively affected, or will affect, something of concern or interest of the first party.

Meanwhile, Wijono, (2010) defined conflict as interaction between individuals, groups or organizations who make the opposite purpose or meaning, and feeling that the other person as a potential bully towards achieving their goals. Wijono (2010) defines that conflict is the mismatch condition and appearance of the various opposition purposes of behavior, both of which exist within the individual, group or organization.

Wirawan (2010) defines organizational conflict is conflict that occurs when one party destination is not the same as the others. Wirawan (2010) defines conflict is a condition of employment between the worker with another worker interdependent, who feel angry, guilty and assume another go because of a problem. Blackard and Gibson (2014) defines workplace conflict is a dynamic process of habituation interaction of two or more employees have the same position of difference or incompatibility between them. Based on the findings, perspectives on conflict showed that workplace conflict is a matter of work, lack of cooperation, differences and discomfort in the works. From these results differ slightly when compared to the view according to some figures. Most of definitions about conflict are more focused on the existence of a conflict, perceptions about the negative influence of other people, focuses on goal difference, and focuses on the relationship of interaction, while employees Java tribes focused on work issues. Although different, but overall equally oriented interpersonal relationships, it's just the perspective of the dominant Indonesian employees view the conflict as a matter of work globally.

The similarity of orientation on interpersonal relationships, this can be attributed to the principle of Indonesian people live a more put together. Like the three dominant value is the reference Indonesian life, namely collectivism (togetherness), spirituality (spirituality), and humanity (tolerance) (Santosa 2012). Compared to other cultures, such as China considers that the value of togetherness is ancient in achieving happiness. A conflict in Chinese culture is considered as a slander or lies of a harmony (Chen & Starosta, 1997).

Factors that trigger work conflict may come from yourself, the environment, or other people who have different attitudes, opinions, manner, purpose or value system espoused (Anoraga, 2006). Causes of conflict in the organization according to Mangkunagara (2009) is the coordination of work that is not done, the dependence of the performance of duties, tasks that are not clear (no job description), differences in work orientation, differences in understanding of organizational goals, differences in perception, the system competence incentive (reward), and motivational strategies are not appropriate. Meanwhile, according to Ranupandojo (2006) causes of conflict include many scarce resources, differences in goals, interdependence in carrying out the work, the differences in values and perceptions, one's style of working unclear organizational, and communication problems.

Other causes of conflict by Wirawan (2010) is a limited resource, different goals, mutually dependent or interdependent tasks, organizational differentiation, ambiguity of jurisdiction, improper reward systems, communication is not good, inhumane treatment or violate human rights and legal, social characteristics of the diverse, personal, needs, feelings and emotions, not independent mindset, culture conflict and violence.

Gibson et.al, with a different opinion (2006) simply states that the conflict is caused by the presence of working dependence, goal difference, and a difference of perception. Another with Wijono opinion (2010) states that the conflict is caused by situations that do not fit, plan activities and time allocation is not appropriate, uncertain job status, and differences in perception.

The findings of the study showed that the factors that trigger conflict are the negative nature of the personal, the difference in completing the work, communication, jealousy, work commitments, lack of cooperation, job dissatisfaction, and personal outside work. Factor dominates over the negative nature to others. From these results, there is little difference when compared with the above experts. Anoraga (2006) focused on yourself, Mangkunagara (2009) focused on the lack of cooperation, and Wirawan (2010), Ranupandojo (2006) focused on scarce resources as the main factor triggering the emergence of workplace conflict, Gibson et. al, (2006) focused on the dependence of work, while Wijono (2010) focused on the situation that is not appropriate.

The results are also in contrast to the results of previous studies, that of CPP Global Human Capital Report (2008) states that the main causes of workplace conflict is differences in personality and ego especially in Ireland, the United States, and Britain. Personality differences in question here is not necessarily a negative personality, it's just a difference in emphasis. While in Germany that a major factor is stress, and in France is honesty and openness. According to the results of a study of conflict in the Canadian workplace (Psychometric Canada, 2008), a major

factor causing conflict with the results of the research CPP Global Human Capital Report (2008) is the differences in personality and ego. Other results declared major factors triggering the emergence of conflict is due to a lack of clarity of roles (Buss, 2009). But it would be different if compared with Indonesian, that work conflict in the Indonesian community is usually broken when the conflicting interests (Suseno, 1993).

Based on the opinions of the experts and the results of previous studies when compared with the findings of this study, it appears the similarities and differences in factors that trigger labor conflicts are motivated by cultural differences. Factor equations between the findings with existing views include personal negative nature, communication, cooperation, and job dissatisfaction. While the difference include the difference in solving problems, jealousy, job commitment, and personal problems off the job. But overall both remain focused on interpersonal interactions.

The findings of the study showed that workplace conflict is common in Indonesian employees, among others are difference, work problems, communication problems, interpersonal relationship problems, and lack of cooperation. In any case the difference between the employee and the employer are considered to be the main focus as a conflict of employment for Indonesian employees. These findings were compared with the opinion of the nature of the conflict according to Wijono (2010) can be categorized as organization al conflict within the individual and interpersonal conflicts. Meanwhile, according to Mangkunagara (2009), it can be incorporated into any form of good role in conflict hierarchy, functional conflict, line staff conflict, and the formal-informal conflict, because who experienced conflict starting from the bottom to the employee at the top, both in the department or not.

Meanwhile, CPP Global Human Capital Report (2008) states that a work conflict is a major conflict between employees on its own. According to the results of a study of conflict in the Canadian workplace (2008) sector is often a conflict in a government job. Results further found that workplace conflict is a conflict that often occurs with the boss (Buss, 2009). When compared with the findings of this study, it will show the difference in the form of conflict that often occurs. The results further highlights the most out of the conflict forms the subject, but the findings of the field that has been studied highlights of the attitude.

To describe the occurrence of a conflict is not an easy work. At the time of data collection, the researchers used the question that cannot be used to reveal aspects of how the processes of work conflict is experienced by the participants. Therefore, such data is not obtained as the desired results. This causes researchers unable to discuss it in detail.

Many attempts have been done to deal with work conflict. Mangkunagara (2009) describes conflict management can be done in several ways including: problem solving, libardinate goal, expansion of resources, avoidance, smoothing, compromise, authoritative commands, altering the human variables, altering the structural variables, identifying a common enemy. Another way that can be used to reduce conflict by Anoraga (2006) is a avoidance, cooperation, and discussion to identify the sources of conflict to determine each issue, bringing the two opposite sides of the conflict to their own opinion and views and feelings respectively, regardless who is right and wrong.

Meanwhile, according to Ranupandojo (2006) methods that are often used to deal with conflict is to reduce or resolve conflict. For conflict reduction methods, the most common method used is to cool the first issue and make enemy together to divert the attention of the members of the group. For conflict resolution methods, the ways are pressing, compromising, and integrative problem solving. Another way that is often used in western countries are grievance machinery, which is a process of starting a complaint with the immediate supervisor to arbitration.

Ways in which Indonesian employees resolve work conflicts are, among others, is to individually communicate, communicate as a group, patient and accepting, reporting, introspection, and keep working with spirit.

Ways based on the findings obtained when compared with some of the views outlined earlier are the ways to resolve conflicts with communication. The same way also when compared with the harmony principle which states that Indonesian has no interests of conflicting, traditional techniques of resolving conflict may take part those are compromising and integrating groups in order to avoid (Suseno, 1993). It is also expressed by Santosa (2012) if there are conflict of interests, then this can be resolved is by traditional techniques by compromising to reach an agreement between both parties.

Communication is an important part in establishing harmony and a way to prevent the onset of work conflicts and restore harmony. When Communicating or conveying arguments, everything tends to use methods that are not directly (Santosa, 2012) such as the use of figurative language, symbolism, or symbols. In addition, there are many uses of oral language (oral), especially among rural communities. The goal is to uphold the principles of respect, which demands that human beings in a manner of speaking and carrying oneself always show respect towards others in accordance with the degree and position (Suseno, 1993).

In addition there are similarities, there are prominent differences in the findings of this study which states that the way to resolve the conflict is with patience, accept, and keep working with spirit. When compared with the views of the experts, whose orientation focuses on the encountered conflict and efforts to avoid or deal with it, this study findings stated that no other way than to focus on efforts to avoid or confront the conflict with the patience, accept, and keep work with spirit. This strongly reflects the principle of Indonesian culture, namely 'narimo'. Through this principle, the Indonesian were satisfied with their lives. Anything that has been held in his hand is gladly done. 'Narimo' mean other people do not want and do not envy the happiness of others. They believe that human life in this world is governed by the Almighty in such a way, so it does not need to work hard to get something. 'Narimo' people can be said as people who give thanks to God (Herusatoto, 2003).

Each workplace conflict occurs and is accompanied by the impact emerging for those who experience it. Both the negative impacts and positive impacts. According to (Priliantini, 2008), the negative impact of conflict include decreased productivity, confidence slumped, the establishment of camps, secret information and communication flow is reduced, the moral problem arises, time wasted, and delayed decision-making process. While the positive impacts include increased motivation, problem identification / solving the rise, bond tighter groups,

adjustment to reality, knowledge / skill increases, increased creativity, helping to achieve the goals, and encourage growth.

According Wirawan (2010) the negative impact of the conflict is the cost of conflict, destructive relationships and communication between the parties involved in the conflict, corrupt system of organization, develop negative feelings, decrease the quality of decision making, psychological withdrawal, physical withdrawal, decreased job satisfaction, lower productivity , resulting in a negative synergy system, which is not necessary organizational restructuring, and increasing chronic diseases.

Then the positive impact of creating something new or a change, improve efforts, understand people better, bring out problems, stimulate critical thinking, creative, innovative, produce high-quality solutions, help revitalize the norm obsolete norms, motivate parties to the conflict to improve their creativity, raise approach, a social phenomenon that cannot be avoided must be faced, give valuable experience, and facilitate an understanding of the problem, the opponent of conflict, relations between individuals as well as groups.

Based on the findings, the impact of labor conflicts that occurred on Indonesian employees are disharmony, social relations, not morale, feelings of discomfort, better performance, and some are not impacted. The negative impacts are social relationship disharmony, no morale, feelings of discomfort, while the positive impact consists of a good performance, and some are not impacted. Dominated negative impact of these findings when compared with the opini of Priliantini (2008) and Wirawan (2010) are a little bit different. According to Priliantini (2008) in the spotlight is a productivity issue, Wirawan (2010) more into the spotlight in the transaction costs of conflict, ranging from the time, money, resources used, physical energy, and psychiatric used for things that are not productive, whereas the findings were dominated on social relationship disharmony.

While the positive effects obtained in this study is similar to the theories that have been advanced by Priliantini (2008) i.e. improved performance. It is in contrast to the opinion that further highlights Wirawan (2010) about a change or create something new.

This is also illustrated by the results of CPP Global Human Capital Report (2008) that there are positive and negative effects of work conflict that occurred. Negative impacts include, decreased motivation, anger or frustration, and anxiety. There are things that have no impact, while the positive impact include feeling fine as indicated by the confidence, passion, and work hard. While the results of a study of conflict in the Canadian workplace (2008) suggests that the negative impact of a work conflict include the employee leaves the organization, pain, feeling attacked or humiliated, and depressed. Overall, it is concluded that the impact of workplace conflict is more likely to be felt by each individual.

CONCLUSION

Based on the discussion in the previous chapter, some conclusions are obtained as follows:
According to Indonesian employees :

1. Work conflict is a work problem, lack of cooperation, differences and discomfort in works.
2. Factors that trigger work conflict are personal negative traits, the difference in completing the work, communication, jealousy, work commitments, lack of cooperation, job dissatisfaction, and personal problems outside the job.
3. The form of work conflicts that often occur include a difference, work problems, communication problems, interpersonal relationship problems, and lack of cooperation.
4. The ways used to resolve work conflicts they face are to communicate individually, to communicate in groups, to be patient and accepting, to report, to introspect, and to keep working with spirit.
5. The impacts of work conflict include the social relationship disharmony, low working spirit, feelings of discomfort, better work performance, and some are not impacted.

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Effect of Dysfunctional Attitudes on Orientation of Anger in Major Depressive Disorder

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ABSTRACT:

The purpose of this study was to identify the influence of Dysfunctional Attitudes in delineating the orientation of Anger among Major Depression Disorder patients and control population. Dysfunctional Attitude has long been established as a precursor of depressive symptoms. However there is a dearth of studies on the correlates of Dysfunctional Attitude and orientation of Anger. A total of 60 participants (30 Major Depression Disorder, 30 Control) were asked to fill up a self-report paper pencil questionnaire that measured orientation of Anger, Neuroticism and Dysfunctional Attitude. Results indicated higher Anger suppression, Dysfunctional Attitude, and higher neuroticism scores for the clinical group than control group. When Neuroticism was controlled, Dysfunctional Attitude was found to be positively correlated with temperamental and Internalized Anger in the clinical group; however in the control group it remained uncorrelated with the direction of Anger. Stepwise multiple regressions indicated Dysfunctional Attitude to be significant predictor of Internalized Anger in clinical group while Neuroticism was found to be a significant predictor of Internalized Anger for the control group. The present finding suggests the role of Dysfunctional Attitude in defining the orientation of Anger among the Major Depression Disorder group and also elucidates the relationship between Dysfunctional Attitude and Neuroticism with both Internalized and Externalized Anger.

Keywords: *Dysfunctional Attitude, Major Depression Disorder, Neuroticism, Internalized Anger, Externalized Anger*

INTRODUCTION

Dysfunctional cognitions and Anger have been recognized to play a fundamental role in the development of depression across time. It has been identified to be one of the cognitive vulnerability factors to the development of emotional disorders (Lomax et al., 2011; Altareb, 2012), and are considered as predisposing risk factors for depressive episodes or indirectly as a factor of vulnerability under the stressful conditions (Lam. D., 1998). Ebrahimi et al., 2012 in their study showed that with an increase of a level in categorized Dysfunctional Attitude Scale - 26 (DAS-26) scores the risk of depression increases 4.78 times.

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Effect of Dysfunctional Attitudes on Orientation of Anger in Major Depressive Disorder patients

Dysfunctional Attitude has also been associated with aggression in several studies, one such study carried out on offender samples, found that the frequency of negative, aggression-related thoughts was significantly higher for violent offenders as compared to non-violent offenders (Doucette-Gates, Firestone and Firestone, 1999). A study on driving tendencies by Nesbitt, et al (2012) reported of the presence of specific cognitive distortions among the high aggressive drivers.

Previous studies on the role of Anger in depression have yielded mixed findings. Some of the studies have linked violent behavior (Swanson 1990), greater amount of total Anger and Anger expression (Koh et. al., 2002) with depression, while other studies corroborates the concept that Anger aimed towards the self is linked with depression (Becker & Lesiak, 1977; Wolfersdorf & Kiefer, 1998; Goldman & Haaga, 1995; Brody et al, 1999).

Although both the factors Dysfunctional cognition and Anger have frequently been linked with depression, very few studies have explored the relation between Dysfunctional Attitude and orientation of Anger in depressive and normal population. It is important to increase our understanding of this relation, as Anger problems are very much common among Major Depressive Disordered patients and little is known about its association with Dysfunctional Attitude which has been identified as a contributory factor for the development of depressive symptoms. Again, on the basis of the above-mentioned studies we can conclude that there is a definite relationship between Anger and depression in the West; however, in India very few studies have investigated the orientation of Anger in depressive population. As culture seems to influence an individual's way of comprehension and reason, it is crucial to understand this link in an Indian context. Our study addresses these issues and builds on the existing researches by studying the interrelationship of Dysfunctional Attitude, and Anger orientation among normal and MDD population in India.

The main focus of this study was to explore the forms of Anger that were associated with Dysfunctional Attitude as well as to reanalyze the relation of Anger with depression in India.

Three hypotheses were formulated on the basis of previous studies:

- Anger scores would be higher for the clinical group,
- Dysfunctional Attitude would be positively correlated and act as a predictor for Internalized Anger in both the groups.
- Clinical group would have higher Internalized Anger and lower Externalized Anger than the control group.

Along with Dysfunctional Attitude, Neuroticism has long been highly associated with both depression and Anger (Sharpe and Desai, 2001; R. Martin, Watson, and Wan 2000; Rowland, Alison V 2012; Akiskal, Hirschfeld, Yerevanian 1983; Barnett Gotlib, 1988; Widiger Trull, 1992), so the current study has included a measure of neuroticism as a covariate.

METHODS

Sample: The study was conducted with MDD patients and normal Community participants. Both the groups were matched in terms of age, sex, socio economic status and educational background, and language. All the participants belonged to Bengali community and lived in Kolkata, West Bengal. Participants were selected following snowballing method.

The clinical group consisted of 30 patients (13 male and 17 female) suffering from Major Depressive Disorder, with high suicidal ideation aged between 20 years to 40 years ($M = 27.63$; $SD = 5.68$). The mean age of male patients were 27.85 years ($SD = 5.77$), and females were 27.47 years ($SD = 5.78$). 53% of the population was married and 47 % were unmarried. Patients were selected from the outpatient department of a psychiatric clinic. Diagnoses for clinical participants were established by two trained psychiatrists. Patients with childhood onset of the illness were excluded from the study. Patients having comorbidity of other anxiety or mood disorders were not included in the study. To counteract the drug effects only patients who were not taking any medications for the illness were included in the study.

The control group consisted of 30 Community participants. From a pool of large number of normal subjects, 30 individuals screened by General Health Questionnaire that matched the clinical group in terms of age, sex, socio economic status, educational background, language were selected from the community. Volunteer participants belonged to heterogeneous background (Graduate students, Post graduate University students, Servicemen, Housewives etc.). Guidelines of inclusions were: Participants should be aged between 20 years to 40 years, they should be from middle class background, and volunteers should be devoid of any mental and physical illness. High school matriculation was the minimum educational criteria. Control subjects having history of hospitalization for any major physical/psychiatric disease were excluded. The Mean age of the participants were 27.71 years ($SD = 5.55$), 53% of the population were female ($M = 27.6$; $SD = 5.75$), 47% were male ($M = 27.81$; $SD = 5.41$). 53% of the population was married and 47 % were unmarried. 73% of the sample had 15years of education and 5% had 13 years of education and 5% had 17 years of education.

Measures: Four questionnaires were administered in the present study:

1. The NEO 5 Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI; Costa & McCrae 1992): It is a 60-item, 5-point Likert-style instrument that measures each of the Big Five personality factors (Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeability, Conscientiousness). The instrument is a short form, consisting of the psychometrically strongest items from the revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO PI-R). Internal consistency alphas of .86, .77, .68, and .81 were obtained for the NEO-FFI Neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness and conscientiousness scales respectively, while three month test-retest correlation ranged from .75 to .83. Validity evidence for the NEO-FFI includes independent self and observer agreement, concurrent predictions of real world behavior and discriminant and convergent correlations with similar instruments. In the present study only the neuroticism subscale consisting of 12 items was used.

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2. State Trait Anger Expression Inventory (Spielberger, 1996): It is a 44-item, 4-point scale that measures the experience and expression of Anger. It measured 5 main components of Anger: State Anger (a 10 item scale measuring intensity of angry feelings at a specific time), Trait Anger consisting of 10 items measuring individual difference in the disposition to experience Anger. Trait Anger has 2 subscales: Angry temperament (measures a general disposition to experience and express Anger without provocation) and Angry Reaction (measures individual difference in the disposition to express Anger when treated unfairly by others), Anger-in (frequency with which Anger feelings are suppressed), Anger-out (frequency of expression of Anger outwards), Anger-control (frequency with which an individual attempts to control the expression of Anger) and a final component Anger-expression (frequency with which Anger is expressed regardless of direction) based on the responses of the former items. The alpha scores of .86 (males) .81 (females) for Ax-In, .75 (males) - .78 (females) for Ax-Out, .81 (males) - .88 (females) for Ax-Control were reported by STAXI professional manual.
3. The Dysfunctional Attitude Scale (Weissman, 1979): It is a self-report paper pencil test consisting of 40 items measuring the relatively stable Dysfunctional beliefs that are thought to indicate a person's self-evaluation and are associated with depressive symptoms. Participants are required to respond on a 7-point scale (i.e., totally agree, agree very much, agree slightly, neutral, disagree slightly, disagree very much, and totally disagree). The items depicted seven major value systems: Approval, Love, Achievement, Perfectionism, Entitlement, Omnipotence, and Autonomy. Studies have reported good test-retest reliability (correlation of .84 over an 8-week period; Weissman, 1979). Internal consistency reliability was reported to be very good (alpha = .93) (Beevers et al., 2007).
4. General Health Questionnaire: It is a 28 item self-administered, paper pencil, screening device that assesses somatic symptoms, anxiety and insomnia, social Dysfunction and severe depression in the general population. Time taken for completion of the test is 5 minutes. Test Retest reliability has been reported to be high (0.78 – 0.9) (Robinson and Price, 1982). High internal consistency has also been reported (Failde and Ramos, 2000). Validity in comparison with patients' overall clinical assessment is $r = .70$ to $.83$. In comparison with clinical ratings for two large group of general medical patients has been found to be $r = .67$ to $.76$.

Procedure:

It was a cross sectional study. Community participants were selected through snowballing method. All participants were asked to respond to three self-rating questionnaires, Dysfunctional Attitude Scale, and State Trait Anger Expression Inventory, Neuroticism subscale of NEO FFI scale. All the measures were individually administered and the purpose of the study was explained in an informed consent form which was collected before the tests were administered. In addition an interview session was done with each patient for the clinical group, to eliminate other co-morbid symptoms.

RESULTS

Statistics:

Before conducting data analysis, a normality test was done on the data to ensure that it met all the necessary requisites for conducting parametric tests like T tests, Pearson product moment etc. Normality tests revealed no significant deviations from normality.

T test was conducted to assess the mean score differences between the two groups across the variables. A partial correlation was done to assess the nature of association among the variables in each group. Finally a stepwise multiple regressions were done for each group to examine the extent to which the variables Dysfunctional Attitude and Neuroticism contributed to the variable of Internalized Anger.

Group Comparison:

The clinical group was found to have higher Anger suppression and expression mean scores along with trait Anger scores, than control group. Neuroticism and DA scores were also found to be higher in case of the clinical group. Anger control scores and outward Anger scores were found to be lower in the clinical group.

T tests revealed a significant higher score in all the variables in the clinical group except Anger control and Externalized Anger. A significant higher Neuroticism score were observed in Clinical group. DA scores were found to be significantly lower in case of normal group. The mean score comparison of the two groups are provided in table I.

Table I, Comparison of scores of the two groups on STAXI, DA and Neuroticism subscale

Variables	Groups	N	Mean	SD	T	Sig
Trait	Normal	30	18.100	4.751	-5.774	.000
	MDD	30	27.000	6.978		
T	Normal	30	6.267	2.212	-4.440	.000
	MDD	30	10.200	4.318		
R	Normal	30	8.800	2.188	-4.773	.000
	MDD	30	12.533	3.683		
IN	Normal	30	15.533	4.006	-10.627	.000
	MDD	30	27.767	4.869		
OUT	Normal	30	16.567	4.739	.543	.589
	MDD	30	15.833	5.682		
Control	Normal	30	21.100	6.205	.475	.636
	MDD	30	20.367	5.732		
Ex	Normal	30	27.000	8.107	-4.513	.000
	MDD	30	38.567	11.461		
DA	Normal	30	116.833	27.759	-14.218	.000
	MDD	30	213.267	24.690		
Neuroticism	Normal	30	21.167	7.424	-11.897	.000
	MDD	30	41.067	5.369		

Correlation and regression analyses:

In the zero order correlation the clinical group showed a significant positive association between Internalized Anger and DA scores ($r = 0.521$, $p < 0.003$), and DA scores and neuroticism ($r = 0.380$, $p < 0.38$). DA scores and Neuroticism both were also seen to be positively correlated

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with Trait Anger, and Anger expression scores. While DA scores were found to be positively correlated with Anger Temperament, Neuroticism was positively associated with Anger reaction; DAS scores and Neuroticism scores were not correlated with Externalized Anger and Anger control scores. In partial correlation where Neuroticism was controlled DAS scores was seen to be positively correlated with Temperamental Anger and Internalized Anger.

In the control group, a significant positive association was observed between Internalized Anger and both DA scores ($r = 0.511$, $p < 0.004$) and Neuroticism ($r = 0.607$, $p < 0.000$), and DA scores and neuroticism ($r = 0.415$, $p < 0.022$). DA scores and neuroticism were found to be negatively associated with Externalized Anger. No significant correlation was observed between DA scores and trait Anger, Anger control and Anger expression. Neuroticism failed to show any further significant correlations with Anger control, expression and trait Anger.

The results are tabulated in table II and table III.

Table II. Correlation between STAXI scores and other variables among MDD population

Correlation	Controlled Variables	Variables	Trait	T	R	IN	OUT	CONTROL	Ex	DA
Zero order	None	DA	.471*	.519*	—	.521*	—	—	.390*	—
		Neuroticism	.484*	.459*	—	—	.385*	—	.516*	.380*
Partial	Neuroticism	DA	—	.420*	—	.465*	—	—	—	—

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table III. Correlation between STAXI scores and other variables among Normal population

Correlation	Controlled Variables	Variables	Trait	T	R	IN	OUT	CONTROL	Ex	DAS
Zero order	None	DAS	—	—	—	.511**	-.379*	—	—	—
		Neuroticism	—	—	—	.607**	-	—	—	.415*
							.444**			
Partial	Neuroticism	DAS	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

A Multiple regression analysis was conducted on each of the group using the stepwise entry method; DA scores and Neuroticism were taken as predictor variables with Internalized Anger as the Dependent Variable. In the clinical group a significant regression equation was calculated with DA scores acting as a predictor. It was seen that DA scores predicted 13.1% of Internalized Anger. In the control group only Neuroticism was retained in the significant regression equation and was found to be predicting 34.6% of Internalized Anger. The results are tabulated in table IV.

Table IV. Results of Multiple Regression for prediction of internalized anger in both the groups

Models	Group	Predictors	Beta	R	Adjusted R Square	T	SE of estimate	Sig. F Change
1	Normal	N	.607	.607	.346	4.039	3.241	.000
1	MDD	DA	.521	.521	.245	3.230	4.229	.003

DISCUSSION

The goal of the present study was to understand the direction of Anger among MDD population in India and also to investigate the relation between Dysfunctional Attitude and direction of Anger. Several studies have established a relation between Depression and Anger suggesting that depression primes angry feelings, hostile ideas and even aggressive behaviors (Shin H, 2010). The findings of the present study supports the previous findings, high trait Anger and Anger expression scores were observed in the clinical group. However the high Anger scores were mainly contributed by Internalized Anger scores, as the Externalized Anger and Anger control scores were seen to be lower than the normal group. In this study the Internalized Anger scores for the clinical group were seen to be much higher than the normal group, a finding that is consistent with studies reporting of a positive association between Anger suppression and depressive symptoms (Bridewell & Chang, 1997; Kopper & Epperson, 1996; Cheung et al, 2010). The high Internalized Anger and trait Anger along with Dysfunctional Attitude scores among the MDD population suggests a relation between the two variables.

In order to understand the role played exclusively by Dysfunctional Attitude on the direction of Anger, a Zero order, a Partial Correlation (holding Neuroticism constant) and a multiple regression was conducted on each group.

As expected, results of partial correlation showed a positive association among Dysfunctional Attitude, Internalized Anger and Temperamental Anger in MDD group when N was controlled. In zero order correlation within the group, Dysfunctional Attitude was found to be correlated with Trait as well as Internalized Anger, implying the effect of N on trait Anger but not on Internalized Anger. Dysfunctional Attitude has long been associated with Depressive symptoms, cognitive vulnerability hampers rational understanding of the problems by increasing the propensity of an individual to construe information distortedly and negatively which may also lead to the experience of Anger. Furthermore when Neuroticism was constant Dysfunctional Attitude seized to be correlated with trait Anger, but was positively associated with Temperamental Anger, a subscale of Trait Anger that measures the proclivity to experience and express Anger without provocation. A finding that suggests the effect of covariate Neuroticism contributing towards Trait Anger along with Dysfunctional Attitude, and the sole effect of Dysfunctional Attitude on the propensity towards the feelings of Anger.

However in the Normal group partial correlation yielded no significant correlation between Anger and Dysfunctional Attitude, hence suggesting the link shared by Dysfunctional Attitude and Anger to be valid only within the Clinical group. In the control group zero order correlation it was also seen that Dysfunctional Attitude and Neuroticism was negatively associated with Externalized Anger and Neuroticism was positively associated with Internalized Anger, a finding that needs further research with larger sample size for a definite conclusion.

To investigate this relationship further a Multiple Regression was conducted between the 3 variables on each group. Dysfunctional Attitude was found to be acting as a predictor for Internalized Anger only in the MDD group and Neuroticism was seen to be acting as a predictor variable for Internalized Anger only in the control group. Hence, the results of the present study

imply a definite link between Dysfunctional Attitude and Anger suppression in depressed patients but this relationship does not hold true for the control group. This might be due to the fact that Dysfunctional Attitude induces unreasonable beliefs which in turn influences Internalized Anger, the control group population devoid of this cognitive distortion as a result shares much less Internalized Anger scores which are solely influenced by Neuroticism.

Thus in our study we see that although Anger scores are influenced by Neuroticism among normal population, the influence on orientation of Anger among depressive population is being predominated by the Cognitive distortions, and the role of Neuroticism mainly lies in influencing the trait Anger scores within the clinical group.

The limitation of this study was partially owing to the low sample size and partly due to the cross sectional nature of the study, a longitudinal follow up study should be done focusing the relationship between Dysfunctional Attitude and Anger orientation. Future studies should focus on longitudinal study designs with a larger sample size and treatment based experimental studies. Some of the studies on CBT have shown an improvement of Dysfunctional Attitude scores after treatment, hence studies may also incorporate a measurement of Anger that assess the Internalized Anger before and after treatment of MDD. Furthermore researches should be conducted in different cultures to assess the generalizability of these results.

However, despite the limitations, the present study is the first to assess the association between Dysfunctional Attitude and orientation of Anger in an Indian clinical population; it also extends the findings of previous studies that have associated Dysfunctional Attitude and Anger with depression by showing that Dysfunctional Attitude may be responsible for the direction of Anger characterizing the MDD population in India.

CONCLUSION

The result of the present study indicates a definite role played by Dysfunctional Attitude in the direction of Anger among the MDD population of India and also elucidates the role of the covariate Neuroticism in the orientation of Anger. These findings have diagnostics as well as therapeutic implications which may help in curbing the suicidal rate among the MDD population caused by high Internalized Anger. It is also encouraging for theoretical frameworks that assume that Dysfunctional beliefs are partially responsible for normal human suffering (Ellis, 2001; Hayes et al., 1999).

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Conduct Disorder among Adolescents: An Intervention Approach through Psycho-Yogic Program

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ABSTRACT:

Conduct Disorder is a repetitive and persistent pattern of behaviour in which the basic rights of others or major age-appropriate societal norms or rules are violated and is seen commonly among adolescents these days. These behaviours fall into four main groupings: aggressive conduct, nonaggressive conduct, deceitfulness or theft, and serious violations of rules. We thus conducted this study in order to reach to a gradual solution of these problems. A Control group study was conducted on a sample of 80 adolescents, taken through quota sampling, with 50 in Experimental and 30 in Control group. Child Behavior Checklist 6-18 years by T. M. Achenbach (2001) was used for pre and post readings. After 8 weeks of intervention, significant improvement was noticed in Experimental group at 0.01 level of confidence thus indicating that Psycho-Yogic Intervention can be applied to reduce the symptoms of Conduct Disorder among adolescents.

Keywords: *Conduct Disorder, Adolescents, Psycho-Yogic intervention.*

INTRODUCTION

As infants, children develop gradually and evenly but as they step into adolescence, children radically change in shape and size physically. Simultaneously with the physical growth, the nature and behaviour of the adolescents also change. They tend to develop a sense of self and personal identity as well as the capacity to make their own decisions and manage life tasks without being overly dependent on other people. This important stage of life is usually marked between 10 and 19 years. According to a report by WHO (2007), the total population of young people in India itself is approximately 327 million which makes up nearly 30% of the population of country. In that 30%, nearly 21% of the total population falls in the age bracket of 10-19, which is classified as adolescents—a distinct segment consisting of young people. The proportion of young adolescents aged 10-14 is the largest among all young people.

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How one learns to contemplate, feel and behave in different new ways is a result of one's experience in various events in life situations and interactions with parents, teachers, and other important people in one's life. This means that an individual changes in response to actions and reactions of the people in his/her environment and this process continues throughout the life.

The adolescents approach identity formation, when their childhood goes well, with a sense of self as an autonomous, active, and competent agent in a relatively secure world. If there are any developmental problems, the adolescent may be hindered by feelings of mistrust, shame and doubt, guilt, and/or inferiority and futility. Identity formation is a challenging process even under the best circumstances; problems in earlier development may render it even more difficult and decrease the likelihood of positive outcomes (Moshman, 2005) including role confusion and a weak sense of self.

The physical and the psychological changes that occur during adolescence can lead the children in this age to experiment with their bodily as well as mental faculties, sometimes leading to fatal results. If the questions and problems arising from their psycho-social and physiological conditions are left unaddressed, it might lead to psychological disorders underlying attention seeking behaviours. It is during this period that they may be experimenting with drugs, alcohol or sexuality. Without proper guidance and counseling they may fall into vicious traps leading to losses which might have short or long term effects on their physical or psychological well-being.

It is estimated that at least 10 percent of 5-15 year olds have a diagnosable mental health disorder. **Singh, Sharma, Mathur, Gupta and Khatri (1989)** studied three hundred and forty eight children of age group 5-15 years and found that 50 out of 348 children were having mental health problems. Similar result was obtained by **Muzammil, Kishore and Semwal (2009)** who found that overall prevalence of psychosocial problems among adolescents was 31.2% in Dehradun during 2006-2007.

The results of a cross-sectional research on 400 children by **Anita, Gaur, Vohra, Subash and Khurana (2003)** indicated the prevalence of psychiatric disorders in children of ages between 6 and 14 years, in rural and urban areas of Rohtak, to be **16.5 percent**. It was also observed that **Conduct disorder was the most common psychiatric disorder witnessed in these children with a total prevalence rate of 4.5 percent; and 4.58 percent** according to a study by **Sarkhel, Sinha, Arora and DeSarkar (2006)** conducted on a sample of 240 students, of ages between 10 and 15 years studying in various schools in Kanke.

The essential feature of Conduct Disorder is a repetitive and persistent pattern of behaviour in which the basic rights of others or major age appropriate societal norms or rules are violated (DSM-IV TR, 2005). Children or adolescents with this disorder often react aggressively to others. They often display bullying, threatening, or intimidating behaviour. Symptoms of the disorder vary with age as the individual develops increased physical strength, cognitive abilities, and sexual maturity. Behaviours which are less severe, like lying, shoplifting, and physical fighting tend to emerge initially at first, whereas more severe behaviour, like burglary, is likely to surface at a later age.

The reason for aggressiveness in the children with conduct disorder was reflected upon in a study by **Sterzer et al. (2005)**. Functional magnetic resonance imaging during passive viewing of pictures with neutral or strong negative affective valence was performed in 13 male adolescents with severe Conduct Disorder aged 9 to 15 years and in 14 healthy age-matched control subjects. The findings reflected an impairment of both the recognition of emotional stimuli and the cognitive control of emotional behaviour in patients with Conduct Disorder, resulting in a tendency for aggressive behaviour.

The result of a recent study by Euler, Sterzer and Stadler (2014) indicates that **cognitive control under distressing emotional stimulation was affected in adolescents with Conduct Disorder but not in healthy controls. They also concluded that executive functions, in reactive aggressive Conduct Disorder patients, are more susceptible to the harmful effects of distressing emotional stimulation.**

Conduct problems have an adverse effect on the overall personality of an individual as more problematic and difficult behaviour can occur in later adolescence and early adulthood. The results of several studies support this evidence. **Lynskey and Fergusson (1995); Disney and her associates (1999); and Connor, Ford, Albert and Doerfler (2007)** found in their study that early conduct problems were significantly associated with later substance use and definitely increases the risk of substance use and abuse in adolescents. In another research it was indicated that **children diagnosed with conduct problems were at a greater risk for internalizing psychopathology which in turn is responsible for social problems with peers (Polier, Vloet, Herpertz-Dahlmann, Laurens & Hodgins, 2012).**

For adolescents suffering from Conduct Disorder, **Risperidone appeared to be an adequately tolerated and effective treatment in children with severe disruptive behaviours such as aggression and destructive behaviour (Findling et al., 2000; Pandina, Aman & Findling, 2006).** Though risperidone was an effective treatment for disruptive behaviours, some of the most common side effects of the drug included somnolence, headache, appetite increase, and dyspepsia. Side effects related to extrapyramidal symptoms were reported in 7 (13.2%) and 3 (5.3%) of the subjects in the risperidone and placebo groups, respectively (Snyder et al., 2002).

For Conduct Disorder, overall treatment response, apart from controlling aggression, is poor (Sengupta & Shivalkar, 2007). The problem is compounded by the fact that treatment for such disorders is usually long term and lasts over a lifetime of the patient. In the long term, the medications can do more harm than they can benefit the individual who has been on such drugs since his/her childhood. Though the evidence suggests that antipsychotics, antidepressants, mood stabilisers, antiepileptic drugs, stimulants and adrenergic drugs can be well tolerated and effective therapeutic options for individuals with conduct disorder and comorbid psychiatric conditions yet the most successful therapeutic outcomes are likely to be achieved by combining the current advances in psychopharmacology with behavioural and psychosocial interventions, aimed at modifying the excessive patterns of maladaptive behaviours observed in conduct disorder (Tcheremissine & Lieving, 2006).

Needless to say, the search for non-invasive and non-medication therapies and behavioural treatments is what is required to be researched for, in order to create an effective, long term and responsible treatment regime for the same (Collingwood, 2010), because the child again regresses to his habitual problematic behavior as soon as the effect of the drugs lose effectiveness or intensity.

Adolescents are responsible for shaping the social and economic development, challenge social norms and values, and build the foundation of the world's future. Maturing earlier than previous generations, both physically and socially, adolescents and youth have high expectations for themselves and their societies. Most youth who exhibit some form of behavioural, emotional, or developmental disorder seek help to receive some form of psychosocial intervention. Although the need has been great, research on the psychosocial treatment of children and adolescents has not received as much attention as that of adults. It is assessed that more than 200 treatment modalities are actually practiced with this population, and research has examined only a few (Hibbs & Jensen, 1996).

Conduct Disorder among Adolescents: An Intervention Approach through Psycho-Yogic Program

The present research is designed with the purpose of providing a Psycho-Yogic intervention program for resolving behavioural problems among adolescents. This Psycho-Yogic Intervention Program includes three yogic practices, namely, Surya Namaskara, Ujjayi Pranayama, Yoga Nidra and a psychotherapy, namely, Behaviour Therapy.

Although yoga in modern society has been often thought of as a form of physical exercise, traditionally, yoga practice has been a multicomponent discipline involving postures and physical exercises, breath-regulation techniques and the control of attention and enhancement of mindful awareness through the practice of meditation (Khalsa, 2013). Emotionally disturbed, destructive, aggressive, hyperactive children can benefit from yogic discipline (Satyananda, S., 2006).

The practice of Surya Namaskara as a whole gives a great number of benefits. It strengthens the back and helps balance the metabolism. The practice is known to give health, vitality, spiritual well-being and advancement. Surya Namaskar is a time and cost effective form of exercise for body as well as mind and helps maintain a sound balance of mental health and physical rigour.

Deep breathing patterns which are practiced in yoga can have quite an advantageous effect on the practitioner's physical and mental health. As observed, the rate and depth of breathing have distinctive effects on heart rate and the autonomic nervous system. An emotionally disturbed child also needs to relieve his apprehension and remorse, and gradually control his resistance mechanisms so that normal personality growth can continue. As the sensations of heat and cold, pain and pleasure, awaken during the practice of Yoga Nidra, the centres of the brain responsible for maintaining harmony between our inner and outer environments are automatically stimulated.

In general, the programs set such goals as increasing the amount of time the child remains seated, the number of math papers completed, or appropriate play with peers. Reinforcement programs reward the child for improvements and, at times, punish misbehaviour with loss of rewards (Barlow & Durand, 2012).

This **Psycho-Yogic Intervention program** is thus anticipative to be advantageous for adolescents with Conduct Disorder so that their energy can be channeled and used in the right direction.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

A sample of 80 male adolescents (11.5-15.11 years) with 50 in experimental and 30 in control group, selected from various clinics and hospitals in New Delhi, was taken through quota sampling and was administered Psycho-Yogic Intervention for 8 weeks.

Research Design:

The design used is 'Control Group Design'.

Tools Used:

Child Behavior Checklist 6-18 years by T. M. Achenbach (2001).

Procedure:

- Preparation
- Surya Namaskara asanas:

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- Pranamasana
- Hasta utthanasana
- Padahastanasana
- Ashwa sanchalanasana
- Parvatasana
- Ashtanga namaskara
- Bhujangasana
- Parvatasana
- Ashwa sanchalanasana
- Padahastanasana
- Hasta utthanasana
- Pranamasana
- Ujjayi Pranayama
- Yoga Nidra:
 - Preparation
 - Resolution
 - Rotation of Consciousness
 - Breath Awareness
 - Opposite feelings and sensations
 - Visualization
 - Resolution
 - Ending the practice
- Behaviour Therapy
- End Process

Total time: 1 hour

Total Intervention Time: 8 weeks

RESULT

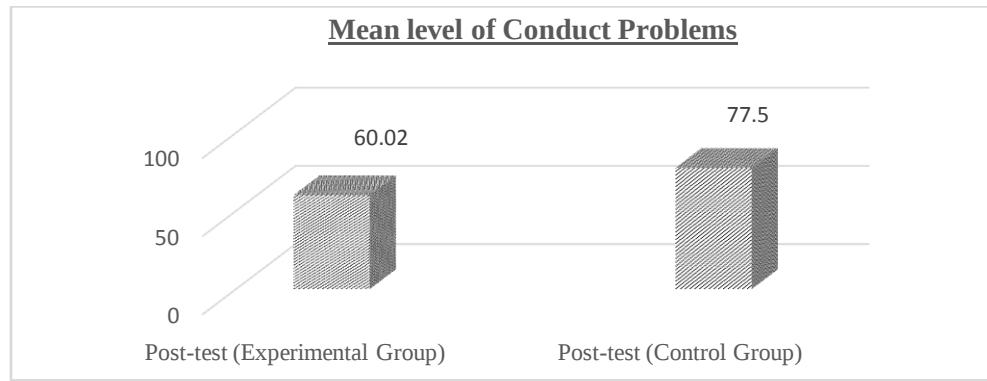
Alternate Hypothesis:

1. There is significant effect of Psycho-Yogic Intervention in reducing the symptoms of Conduct Disorder among Adolescents.

Result Table 1

Group		N	M	SD	df	t	Level of Significance
Experimental	Post	50	60.02	5.085	78	12.06	P<.01
Control	Post	30	77.50	6.872			

Graphical Representation of Table 1



DISCUSSION

The main objective of the present study was to explore the effect of Psycho-Yogic intervention program on behaviour deviance among adolescents. On completion of the study, the results indicate that there is significant effect of Psycho-Yogic Intervention Program in reducing the symptoms of Conduct Disorder. For the symptoms related to Conduct Disorder, the value of t is 12.06 for the post data of experimental group and control group which is significant at 0.01 level of confidence. This confirms the positive effect of Psycho-Yogic Intervention on levels of conduct problems among adolescents as they are able to reflect upon their own behaviour and decide what is best for them.

The child who has the symptoms of disruptive behaviour, severe aggression as well as socially maladaptive behaviour, gradually shows significant improvement in conduct through the practices of yogic discipline and participation in behaviour therapy.

Hiremath, Hunshal and Gaonkar (2008) laid emphasis through their research on the fact that a considerable percentage of students i.e. 15-20 percent of adolescents have difficult problem behaviour. This indicates that adolescents with high score in externalizing problems tend to be aggressive, act out their feeling and emotions and also express more verbal and physical threats often.

Yoga recommends that the mind must keep the body and sense organs under its control (**Shankar, 2002**). Since emotional disturbances are regarded responsible for disorganized human behavior, they can be tamed by controlling a person's emotions. Emotions can be controlled by controlling the mind (**Ghosh, 2005-06**).

Further, **Buchha (2012)** in his study indicated that like other yoga exercises, the Sun Salutation promises to improve the physical, mental and spiritual aspects. It is said to be effective in alleviating stress, boosting concentration, stabilizing emotions and inducing peace of mind. Surya Namaskar benefits the body by improving blood circulation, digestion and flexibility. The joints, and ligaments are strengthened and the nervous system's functions are sharpened. The exercise is also believed to have a positive effect on the pituitary, thyroid and parathyroid glands in the endocrine system.

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Powell, Gilchrist and Stapley (2008) studied the effect of an intervention involving massage, yoga, breath work and relaxation delivered to young children with identified emotional and behavioural difficulties, and found that children in the Intervention Group showed improvements in self-confidence, social confidence, communication and contribution in the class. Similar study was conducted by **Singh et al. (2007)** who assessed the effectiveness of a mindfulness training procedure in modulating the aggressive behavior of adolescents with conduct disorder who were at risk of expulsion from school because of this behaviour. The adolescents were able to learn the mindfulness procedure successfully and use it in situations that previously occasioned aggressive behavior.

Satyananda, S. (2006) emphasized that for emotionally distressed children, who find inactivity almost unbearable, the combination of physical movement and progressive relaxation is most appropriate. After Surya Namaskara the child will willingly lie down in Shavasana for Yoga Nidra. The purpose of the exercise is to induce deep relaxation, so that negative impressions locked in the unconscious mind will float to the surface and be dissipated. Children with behavioural problems have pent-up feelings of anger and aggression. For them, the practice of Yoga Nidra provides much needed relaxation and restores the balance of mental and pranic energy and also helps in releasing and rechanneling their energies in a more constructive way.

Behaviour therapy in itself is an effective tool which brings about a definite change in one's behavior as **the basic goal of behaviour therapy is to teach the child new ways of behaving through changing the environment, teaching new skills, or changing cognitive and emotional process (Hetherington & Parke, 1986)**. Rather than exploring inner conflicts and attempting cognitive change, behaviour therapist attempt to modify behaviour directly by manipulating environmental contingencies- that is, by the use of reward and punishment (**Coleman, 1988**).

CONCLUSION

With Psycho-Yogic Intervention, disruptive patterns pertaining to Conduct Disorder can be gradually reduced with regularity and continuity of the practices. This not only leads to the experiences of optimum health and well-being, but also provides a way into accepting one's behaviour and acting according to the norms of the society. As a child reflects upon his own behaviour, he is able to analyse and eliminate the disorderly behaviour and enhance positive conduct. It, thus, develops a sense of physical and emotional control, and the use of one's abilities in the right direction, which in turn leads to better performance at personal level as well as in the society.

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Emotional Intelligence and Academic Achievement among Advantage and Disadvantage Children

Dr. Smritikana Mitra Ghosh*

ABSTRACT:

In the present investigation an attempt has been made to reveal the relationship of emotional intelligence and academic achievement. It also studies the emotional intelligence and academic achievement of high and low socio economic status children. Sample for the study includes 200 (100 high socio economic status and 100 low socio economic status) of class Xth of Ranchi. The data were analyzed with the help of t-ratio and product moment coefficients of correlation. The findings of the study reveal positive relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement. The study also reveals that students with high and low socio economic status differ from one another on emotional intelligence and academic achievement.

Keywords: *Emotional intelligence, Academic achievement, socio economic status*

INTRODUCTION

The rapid development of the era is challenging the adolescents to face the wave of globalization. Thus, the ability to control the emotions has become important for not carried away by the flow of negative and evil elements.

Emotions have so much of power that in Latin they were described as 'motus anima', meaning literally the spirit that moves us. They serve as a powerful source of human energy. Emotions are an important part of life which seriously affects all aspects of life. Almost in every experience there is an affectionate emotional aspect and managing them can have a significant role in general health and particular emotional health. Emotional intelligence is a social intelligence identifying the ability to adjust one self's emotions with others. Emotional intelligence (EI) refers to the ability to perceive, control and evaluate emotions. Some researchers suggest that emotional intelligence can be learned and strengthened, while others claim it is an in born characteristic.

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The Four Branches of Emotional Intelligence

Salovey and Mayer proposed a model that identified four different factors of emotional intelligence: the perception of emotion, the ability reason using emotions, the ability to understand emotion and the ability to manage emotions.

1. **Perceiving Emotions:** The first step in understanding emotions is to accurately perceive them. In many cases, this might involve understanding nonverbal signals such as body language and facial expressions.
2. **Reasoning with Emotions:** The next step involves using emotions to promote thinking and cognitive activity. Emotions help prioritize what we pay attention and react to; we respond emotionally to things that garner our attention.
3. **Understanding Emotions:** The emotions that we perceive can carry a wide variety of meanings. If someone is expressing angry emotions, the observer must interpret the cause of their anger and what it might mean.
4. **Managing Emotions:** The ability to manage emotions effectively is a key part of emotional intelligence. Regulating emotions, responding appropriately and responding to the emotions of others are all important aspect of emotional management.

The last decade of 20th century is infact considered to be the best gift to the international community of psychological sciences, as it is known for the best discovery related to emotional intelligence.

Academic achievement occupies a very important place in education as well as in the learning process. In our society academic achievement is considered as a key criterion to judge one's total potentialities and capacities. Now a days, achievement and evaluations are interpreted in terms of not only IQ but other factors also like social intelligence, emotional intelligence, spiritual and creativity and in terms of so many aspects. Children's performances and abilities are judged through covering various traits of personality. Academic achievement also denotes the knowledge attained and skill developed in the school subject, usually designed by the test scores. Academic achievement has been a topic of considerable interest and research for a very long time. Academic achievement has always been considered to be a very important factor in the educational life of an individual, because good academic record over years predicts future success of a person. The importance of prediction of academic achievement has increased during recent years because of various reasons. Academic achievement is often adversely affected by lack of social acceptance. Those who are well accepted, perform better than those who are neglected and much better than who are actually rejected. Poor academic work is common among those who are resentful because they do not receive the social acceptance they crave.

Although some students try to compensate for lack of social acceptance by high academic achievement, this is a far less common source of motivation than is social acceptance.

Emotional intelligence and academic achievement have become a prime interest for the teachers, educationists, psychologists and parents to predict children's academic success which is considered to be an outcome of the learning environment as well as cognitive and intellectual potentials of adolescents.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Emotional intelligence is a dynamic construct influenced by diverse biological, psychological, and social factors. Numerous studies were intended to find out the impact of demographic variables on emotional intelligence of individuals. An exploratory study of the relationship between emotional intelligence and socio economic status was done by Holmes (2007) in which emotional intelligence was considered as criterion variable and socio-economic status as predictor, and measured by household income, parent education and occupation. Bivariate and multivariate correlational analysis revealed significant positive relationship except mother's occupation and household income. Further Namdar, Sahebiagh, Ebrahimi and Rahmani (2008) have found a significant relationship between emotional intelligence score and the student's satisfaction of their family socioeconomic status among nursing students. The relationship between emotional intelligence and socio economic status was studied by Jacques (2009) among 221 college students and the study reported that socio economic status did not predicted emotional intelligence. Mohanty and Devi, L. (2010) in their study, revealed that good education and occupation of parents in positively and significantly effects the interpersonal relationship of the adolescents. It means that parents having good occupation have adolescents having the ability in establishing and maintaining mutually satisfying relationship characterized by emotional closeness and intimacy. Chopera (1982), has found that socio - economic background was a very important determinant for continuation of education and students belonging to higher socio-economic class had higher academic achievement and vice versa. The same was supported by Kapoor (1987). More recently, a small body of empirical research has emerged to suggest that there is merit to the idea that emotional intelligence is associated with academic achievement—as long as careful attention is directed at the methodology for assessing emotional intelligence and achievement variables (Parker, Summerfeldt, Hogan, & Majeski, 2004). Petrides, Frederickson, and Furnham (2004) examined the relationships among emotional intelligence, cognitive ability, and academic performance in a British sample of 650 Grade 11 students. They found that emotional intelligence moderated the relationship between academic performance and cognitive ability. Parker et al. (2004) study by examining the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement in younger respondents. Petrides, Frederickson, and Furnham (2004) looked at the relationships between trait emotional intelligence, academic performance, and cognitive ability in a sample of 650 British secondary education students (Grade 11). They found that emotional intelligence moderated the relationship between academic performance and cognitive ability. In a study conducted by Parker et al. (2004), various dimensions of emotional intelligence were found to be predictors of

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academic success. Family background has repeatedly proven to be a strong predictor of academic achievement. A central conclusion of the Coleman Report (1966) was that family background accounted for the majority of the variation in student achievement. Currie and Thomas (1999) show that socio-economic status and early child test scores are positively and significantly related.

Mayer (2001) finds that the increase in economic segregation between 1970 and 1990 “raised educational attainment among high-income children by about the same amount that it reduced educational attainment among low-income children.” Extensive research in the sociology of education offers conclusive evidence of a positive relationship between family socio-economic status (SES) and the academic achievement of students (Sirin, 2005; White, 1982).

HYPOTHESES

1. There would be no significance of difference among advantage and disadvantage children in terms of emotional intelligence.
2. There would be no significance of difference among advantage and disadvantage children in terms of academic achievement.
3. There exists significant relationship between academic achievement and emotional intelligence.

SAMPLE

Sample of 200 school students of class Xth studying in the private and government schools of Ranchi town. The sample split of 100 students from high socio economic status (50 boys and 50 girls) and 100 students from low socio economic status (50 boys and 50 girls).

The high socio-economic group was taken from families with high income (Taxable income).

The Low socio-economic group was taken from families with very low income (Below the Poverty Line).

INSTRUMENT

1. Emotional Intelligence Inventory developed by Mangal and Mangal (2009) was used to measure emotional intelligence of the school students. The reliability by split half method was 0.89 and test retest method was 0.92. The validity of the test was 0.613.
2. The aggregate marks obtained by the students in their previous examination were considered as the academic achievement score.

PROCEDURE

The Emotional Intelligence Inventory was administered to both groups with instructions to complete all questions honestly and not to discuss the questions with fellow students. Scoring

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was done according to the respective scoring keys. In order to fulfill the hypotheses of the study the score obtained were analyzed with mean, SD's and t value. To find out the relationship between academic achievement and emotional intelligence product moment correlation coefficient was computed.

RESULTS

Table – 1, Mean scores, SD's and “t” value of the high and low socio-economic groups on emotional intelligence.

Groups	N	Mean	SDs	SEM	Md	t	P Value
High Socio-economic group	100	49.53	4.64	0.35	1.8	4.13	0.01
Low Socio-economic group	100	47.73	3.67	0.22			

It is evident from table – 1

The both high and low socio-economic groups differed significantly in terms of emotional intelligence. Thus, the null hypothesis “There would be no significance of difference among advantage and disadvantage children in terms of emotional intelligence” is rejected.

The high socio-economic status students have higher level of Emotional intelligence than low socio-economic status students. The results are in agreement with the findings of the earlier researches: (Hossein Namdar, et.al 2008), (Kaur and Jaswal 2005 and Ozabaci, 2006). Hossein Namdar et.al 2008 found that there was a significant relationship between emotional intelligence score and the student's satisfaction of their family socio- economic status. Kaur and Jaswal 2005 found that there was a significant relation between emotional intelligence score and students satisfaction of their family socio-economic status. The significant and positive relationship was found between high performance for strategic emotional intelligence and family climate.

Table – 2, Mean scores, SD's and “t” value of the high and low socio-economic groups on academic achievement.

Groups	N	Mean	SDs	SEM	Md	t	P Value
High Socio-economic group	100	46.56	11.74	2.3	7	4.32	0.01
Low Socio-economic group	100	39.56	11.31	2.13			

Table – 2 shows that

There is a difference between high and low socio-economic groups on the academic achievement. The result revealed that the academic achievements of high socio-economic group were much better than that of low socio-economic group. Family background has repeatedly proven to be a strong predictor of academic achievement. The results are in agreement with the findings of the earlier researches: Currie and Thomas (1999) Hoxby (2001).

Table – 3, Correlation co-efficient of academic achievement with emotional intelligence.

N = 200

	Academic Achievement	P value
Emotional Intelligence	0.330479152**	0.01

Result of the present study revealed that emotional intelligence had a significant correlation with academic achievement. Hence, the hypothesis “There exists significant relationship between academic achievement and emotional intelligence” is accepted. This result is consistent with the earlier research findings of the Schuttle et.al (1998) and Topia (1998) who found a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement. The effect of emotional intelligence on academic achievement is well documented in the literature (Bar – On, 2003; Farook, 2002; Marquez et.al.2006 & Adeyemo, 2007).

CONCLUSIONS

1. High socio-economic group is having higher level of emotional intelligence rather than low socio-economic group.
2. High socio-economic group is having higher academic success rather than low socio-economic group in same academic categories.
3. Emotional intelligence is positively and significantly co-related with academic achievement.

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The Psychological Well-Being among Government and Non Government School Teachers: A Comparative Study

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ABSTRACT:

Aim of the research is to find out the Psychological Well-being among School teachers. So investigator selected two groups one is government school teachers and other is non government school teachers, both groups have 400 persons. In one group has 200 and other one groups has 200 persons. The all subjects were randomly selected. Data were collected from Ahmadabad district. Scale was use for data collection is personal datasheet and Psychological Well-being scale developed by Bhogale and Prakash (1995), and data were analysis by “f” test. Result show, There is no significant difference between the psychological well-being of government and non government school teachers. There is no significant difference between the psychological well-being of male and female and urban and rural area.

Keywords: *Well-Being, Government and Non Government School Teachers*

INTRODUCTION

From time immemorial teaching has been considered a noble profession. According to Madam Montessori. "The teacher is an active observer and supervisor of children who directs and guides wherever and whenever necessary" But teacher should be effective because it is generally believed effective teacher are the effective instrument for developing effective human resources in terms of student growth in desirable direction cartographer by the guardians of the society and planned by the movement policy-makers. Though the term ‘effectiveness’ is used frequently in numerous defined formal context such as Organization Administration industry, School University etc. or in informal setting like family. The contemporary literature has avoided to define it because of its inherent ambiguity and complexity. The confusion still persists with regard to the word teaching effectiveness or teacher effectiveness and hence commonly agreed upon criteria of effectiveness are difficult to find. The defining teacher effectiveness two trends are discernible. The first is concerned with student growth-acquisition of ultimate and proximate goals exhibited through their knowledge communication skills and attitudes Second is related to the handling the process variables involved in teaching. Such as, presenting, asking responding, providing feedback, etc Thus teacher effectiveness involves multiple criterion, though the central idea is the integration of personal needs, roles, functions goals and also organizational goals,

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In psychology to occur many research for to get information about human behaviour in deeply. But is very insufficient research doing on work value, burnout and psychological wellbeing its effect on human behaviour. Psychological well-being indicated physical and mental wellness. Sinha (1990) has stated that Psychological well-being is difficult to define. It has been taken to consist of discomfort or desirability and from any disturbance if mental function. It is a somewhat malleable concept which has to do with people's feeling about everyday life activities. Such feeling may range from negative mental state or Psychological strains such an anxiety, depression, frustration, Emotional, exhaustion, unhappiness, dissatisfaction to a state which has been identified as positive mental healthy [Johada 1958, Warr 1978]

"A state of complete physical mental and social well-being and does not consist only of the obsoss of disease of infirmity" -**World health organization (WHO) (1948)**

"Psychological well-being as the general experience by individual that there will be positive outcome or circumstance" **Adams, Bezner, & Steinhardt (1997)**

What war the phase of illness the good of caregivers is to proponent Psychological well-being as "seeking a sense of control in the face of the life threading illness he characterized by emotional distress altered life priorities and fear of the unknown as well as positive life changes" in order on promote Psychological well-being Scanlon suggest that three question be a asked.

1. What do they worry about?
2. How do they cope?
3. How can nurses help?

At the most basic have Psychological well-being (PWD) is quite similar to other term that refer to positive mental status, such as happiness for satisfaction and in many base it is not necessary for helpful to worry about find distinctions between such terms.

Ivan Robertson cooper

The concept of well-being originated from Positive Psychology. The shift from negative to positive psychology is a welcome change in the discipline. The focus of positive psychology is to study the improvement in the lives of individuals. Positive Psychology has emerged from the problem of the west. Thus it may be inferred that knowledge is culturally conditioned.

Well-being is often defined as a sound economic disposition. A western study of relationship between having money, and life satisfaction revealed that between 1940's and the year 2000, people needed more money to maintain, the same level of satisfaction. In other words one needed more money to stay happy in 2000 than in 1940's, with the requirement of money steadily increasing over the years. Another study proved that while the richest American measured 5.8 on satisfaction while the Slum dwellers of Kolkata measured 2.9 indicating again that satisfaction is not directly related to money per se. However, up to the income level of \$ 10,000 a correlation between money and satisfaction was found, beyond which addition in

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income did not contribute to well being. Thus an economic criterion was found to have a limitation in predicting well being.

AIMS OF THE STUDY:

- 1) To study of the Psychological well-being among government and non government school teachers.
- 2) To study of the Psychological well-being among male and female.
- 3) To study of the Psychological well-being among urban and rural area.

HYPOTHESIS:

1. There is no difference between Psychological well-being of government and non government school teachers.
2. There is no difference between Psychological well-being of male and female.
3. There is no difference between Psychological well-being of urban and rural areas school teachers.
4. There is no interaction effect of Psychological well-being on types of school and sex.
5. There is no interaction effect of Psychological well-being on types of school and types of areas.
6. There is no interaction effect of Psychological well-being on sex and types of areas.
7. There is no interaction effect of Psychological well-being on types of school, sex and types of areas.

METHODOLOGY:

Research design:

This research will be adopted $2 \times 2 \times 3$ factorial design as well as 1 is type of School(Government and Non government), 2 is type of sex (Male and female) 3 is types of area(urban and rural).

2 x 2 x 2 Factorial Design

N = 400

	Government School Teachers (A1)		Non government school Teachers (A2)	
	Male B1	Female B2	Male B1	Female B2
Urban (C1)	50	50	50	50
Rural (C2)	50	50	50	50

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Sample:

In this research study of government and non government school teachers shall be selected from Ahmadabad city and there rural areas. This sample will selected by random sampling method. A total of 400 teachers shall be selected. Out of which 200 would be government school teachers and 200 non government school teachers. Out of which 100 would be male and 100 female. From each of this 50 urban area school teachers and 50 rural area school teacher would taken.

Tools used: The following tools were used in the present study:

Psychological Well-being scale:

Psychological well-being questionnaire developed by Bhogale and Prakash (1995), was used to measure psychological well-being. These are 28 sentences in this scale. All at the sentence had a two option “yes” or “no” belong two option can choose one option and marked by symbol (v). In positive sentence 1 point for yes and 0 point for no. and in negative sentence 1 point for no and 0 point for yes. The test – retest reliability coefficient is 0.72 and internal consistency coefficient is 0.84. The author has reported satisfactory validity of the questionnaire.

Statistical Analysis: In this study „f“ test was used for statistical analysis.

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RESULT AND DISCUSSION:

Psychological well being with reference type of school, sex and types of area

The main objective was to study whether types of school(government and nongovernment), sex(male and female), and types of area(urban and rural) differ in psychological wellbeing. In this context, 7 null hypotheses were constructed. For this purpose 2x2x2 factorial design was framed. To examine these null hypothesis statistical techniques of two way ANOVA was used. The results obtained are presented in table 1, 2, and 3.

Table no 1 (N=400) Means and SD of Psychological wellbeing with reference type of school, sex and types of area

Independent variable			Urban area	Rural area
Government school	Male	Mean	17.32	15.96
		SD	2.78	3.66
		N	50	50
	Female	Mean	16.70	17.60
		SD	3.49	3.50
		N	50	50
Non government school	Male	Mean	17.20	14.97
		SD	2.84	4.09
		N	50	50
	Female	Mean	18.72	17.29
		SD	3.76	4.37
		N	50	50

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Table no.2 (N=400) ANOVA summary of Psychological wellbeing with reference type of school, sex and types of area.

Source of variance	Sum of squares	df	Mean Sum of squares	f	Sign. Level
Type of school	2.354	1	2.354	0.181	NS
Types of sex	147.27	1	147.27	11.340	0.01
Types of area	105.375	1	105.375	8.114	0.01
Type of school x types of sex	49.505	1	49.505	3.812	NS
Type of school x Types of area	63.446	1	63.446	4.885	0.01
Types of sex x Types of area	58.307	1	58.307	4.490	0.01
Type of school x Types of sex x Types of area	13.421	1	13.421	1.033	NS
SSW (Error)	5090.94	392	12.98		
SST	120821.00	400			
*P>0.01, **P>0.05, NS= Not Significant					

Table no. 3, (N=400) Difference between mean score of Psychological wellbeing with reference type of school, types of sex and types of area.

Independent variable	N	Mean (M)	Difference between mean
Government school(A1)	200	16.8950	0.165(A1 x A2)
Non government School(A2)	200	17.06	
Male(B1)	200	16.3719	1.2052(B1 x B2)
Female(B2)	200	17.5771	
Urban (C1)	200	17.48	1.01(C1xC2)
Rural(C2)	200	16.47	

Psychological wellbeing with reference to type of school:-

When f test was applied to check the impact of Psychological wellbeing on type of school, significant f value was found. The f value (table no.2) is 0.181 which are statistically not significant. Table no.3 reveals that the mean scores of Psychological wellbeing of Government and Non government school are 16.8950 and 17.6 respectively. Hence the null hypothesis 1 was maintained and it was concluded that there was no significant impact and the difference between two is 0.165 which is very low and negligible. of psychological wellbeing on Government and

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non government school teacher.

Psychological well being with reference to sex :-

When f test was applied to check the impact of psychological wellbeing on types of sex, significant f value was found. The f value (table no.2) is 11.34 which are statistically significant on level 0.01. Table no.3 reveals that the mean score of psychological wellbeing of male and Female are 16.3719 and 17.5771 respectively and the difference between two is 1.2052 which is very high and not negligible. Hence the null hypothesis 2 was rejected and it was conclude that there was significant impact of psychological wellbeing on male and female.

Psychological well being with reference to types of area:-

When f test was applied to check the impact of psychological wellbeing on types of area, significant f value was found. The f value (table no.2) is 8.114 which is statistically significant on level 0.01. Table no.3 reveals that the mean scores of psychological wellbeing of area are 17.4850 and 16.47 respectively and the difference between two is 1.01(C1 x C2), which is very high and not negligible. Hence the null hypothesis 3 was rejected and it was concluded that there was significant impact of psychological wellbeing on urban and rural area.

Psychological wellbeing with reference to interaction effect of type of school and sex :-

When f test was applied to check the interaction effect of psychological well being on type of school and sex, no significant interaction effect was found. The F value (table no.2) is 3.81 which are statistically not significant. Hence the null hypothesis 4 was maintained and it was conclude that there was no significant interaction effect of psychological wellbeing on type of school and types of sex.

Psychological wellbeing with reference to interaction effect of type of school and Types of area:-

When f test was applied to check the interaction effect of psychological well being on type of school and types of area, significant interaction effect was found. The f value (table no.2) is 4.885 which is statistically significant. Hence the null hypothesis 5 was rejected and it was conclude that there was significant interaction effect of psychological well being on type of school and types of area.

Psychological wellbeing with reference to interaction effect of sex and types of area:-

When f test was applied to check the interaction effect of psychological well being on sex and types of area, significant f value was found. The f value (table no.2) is 4.49 which are statistically significant on level 0.01. Hence the null hypothesis 6 was rejected and it was concluded that there was significant interaction effect of sex and types of area.

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Psychological wellbeing with reference to interaction effect of type of school, sex and types of area:-

When f test was applied to check the interaction effect of type of school, sex and types of area, significant f value was found. The f value (table no.2) is 1.033 which are statistically no significant. Hence the null hypothesis 7 was maintained and it was concluded that there was no significant interaction effect of type of school, types of sex and types of area.

CONCLUSION:

1. There is no significant difference between Psychological well-being of government and non government school teachers.
2. There is significant difference between Psychological well-being of male and female.
3. There is significant difference between Psychological well-being of urban and rural areas school teachers.
4. There is no significant interaction effect of Psychological well-being on types of school and sex.
5. There is significant interaction effect of Psychological well-being on types of school and types of areas.
6. There is significant interaction effect of Psychological well-being on sex and types of areas.
7. There is no significant interaction effect of Psychological well-being on types of school, sex and types of areas.

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Automated Warning Reduces Error of Commission in Vigilance: A Study on Indian Adults

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ABSTRACT:

The spotlight regarding the concept of vigilance somehow was limited to the national security for decades. With technological advancement the concept of vigilance has attained importance in industrial set up. But vigilance as a cognitive aspect in regular life was somehow neglected throughout these years. An automated warning system is a sensory stimulation meant to reduce errors in highly loaded cognitive tasks. Previous research findings suggest that performance efficiency is uninfluenced by warning (Helton et. al., 2008) or a higher error of omission reported in the presence of warning signals (Helton et. al., 2011). But how it affects cognitive process like vigilance is rarely been explored. The present study attempts to reveal the effect of warning on vigilance. Participants were 95 adults chosen from metropolitan areas of Kolkata, India. Participant's Intelligence, processing speed and accuracy along with their psychiatric morbidity was controlled statistically. Finally, the participants were given a visual vigilance task using a software program (Panda & Banerjee, 2011). Whenever the participants made two consecutive errors, an automated warning signal appeared. Results indicate a significant effect of automated warning on the false alarm scores. The means reflect a lower false alarm score when automated warning was given. The effect size indicates 35.3% of the change in false alarm score can be attributed by automated warning. The findings of the present study proposes if we can incorporate warning signals to provide feedback to the participants during performance of a visual vigilance task the performance accuracy can be increased. The finding of the study can be used in defense services, industrial set up as well as during performing day to day cognitive tasks that demand sustained attention or vigilance.

Keywords: *Vigilance, Automated Warning, Error of Commission, Performance*

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INTRODUCTION

Vigilance, or sustained attention, refers to the ability to monitor displays for stimulus events over prolonged periods of time. Sustained attention requires the ability to detect unpredictable and rare events over an extended period of time (Robbins, 1998), and includes vigilance, the state of alertness for infrequent and irregular events (Parasuraman et. al., 1998; Davies & Parasuraman, 1982). The term ‘vigilance’ as applied to human behavior was coined by Sir Henry Head (1923), who referred to it as a state of maximum physiological and psychological readiness to react. However, the origin of modern vigilance research, as in many other areas of human factors, was in the Second World War.

Systematic research on vigilance began with Mackworth’s (1948) pioneering research that suggested of a decline in performance efficiency over the period of watch, known as the vigilance decrement or the decrement function. It has been replicated in many studies and is the most commonly observed effect in vigilance or sustained attention research (Davies & Parasuraman, 1982; Matthews et. al., 2000; Warm, 1993; Warm et. al., 2008). Vigilance tasks are useful for understanding the control of attention and the nature of attentional deficits (Broadbent, 1971; Manly et. al., 1999).

The traditional tasks used in studies of sustained attention are long detection tasks of scarcely occurring signals (Mackworth, 1948; Botella et al, 2001; Grier et. al., 2003). In many studies a vigilance decrement is found, indexed as a decline in the detection rate over time, showing its full strength after 20 to 35 min. However, in other studies, using more complex tasks, no such decline of performance has been found (Warm, 1984). Several hypotheses have been described to account for the vigilance decrement. Some investigators (Stuss, 1995; Robertson et al, 1997) state that the vigilance decrement is a consequence of attentional withdrawal of the supervisory attentional system, due to underarousal caused by the insufficient workload inherent to typical vigilance tasks. Others (Temple et al, 2000; Grier et al, 2003) view the decrement as the result of a decrease of attentional capacity and thus as the impossibility to sustain the effort due to the mental workload.

Vigilance as a cognitive aspect has interested researchers for decades. But the spotlight regarding the concept of vigilance somehow was limited to the defense services and national security. With technological advancement the concept of vigilance has attained importance in industrial set up. But vigilance as a cognitive aspect in regular life is not explored too vividly and somehow was neglected till recent years. With the increased complexities of human life styles, exposure to numerous stimuli at any given point of time, it seems that successful accomplishment of cognitive tasks on regular basis demand individuals to be more vigilant than ever. Thus, the concept that was monopolized by the national securities or industrial settings to some extent is now viewed as a global necessity of every single individual to ensure success in all aspects of daily life. Starting from crossing a busy road to attend a complex classroom lecture, to understand an individual’s exact personality pattern amongst his/her apparent behavioral complexities, to be successful in a debate competition, individuals not only require sustained

attention but they are required to be extremely vigilant to successfully accomplish the cognitive processes. The present study thus aims to explore vigilance as a cognitive aspect of day to day life and highlight if automated warning affect vigilance performance or not.

The importance of vigilance has vaulted to the forefront of current social concerns regarding detection of terrorist activities (Hancock & Hart, 2002). Such tasks characterize many human-machine interactions in automated systems (Howell, 1993; Nickerson, 1992). Sustained attention also plays a critical role in many applied settings, such as process and quality control, medical monitoring, and baggage inspection (Hancock & Hart, 2002; Wickens & Hollands, 2000). Yet until recently, psychologists and human factors researchers typically viewed vigilance tasks by virtue of their repetitiveness and simplicity as tedious and cognitively undemanding (Heilman, 1995). However, studies using the NASA-Task Load Index (NASA-TLX; Hart & Staveland, 1988) have shown that the mental workload of vigilance tasks is substantial (Deaton & Parasuraman, 1993; Warm et. al., 1996).

An automated warning system is a sensory stimulation meant to reduce errors in highly loaded cognitive tasks. An automated warning system is supposed to give an alert when an individual is about to meet a danger. There is significant interest among traffic management personnel in the use of automated warning systems to provide drivers with real-time information on hazardous conditions related to traffic, limited visibility, or roadway obstructions. However, the effectiveness of such systems in safety improvements has not yet been well quantified. With the increase in automation, the concept of automated warning had been increasingly used in industrial setup. But how it affects vigilance as a cognitive process is not yet explored extensively. The present study attempts to throw light on the interrelationship of vigilance and automated warning and aims to reveal if warning actually reduces performance decrement, or decreases performance accuracy inducing anxiety or reduces performance decrement initially, but heightens anxiety that result in performance decrement in long run. So that it can be used more widely during vigilance tasks or suggestions can be made regarding more cautious use of automated warning during vigilance task.

Previous research findings suggest that performance efficiency is uninfluenced by warning (Helton et. al., 2008) or introduction of warning signals reduced RT (Ponsford & KInsella, 1992; Van Zomeren et. al., 1984). Previous research shows that with the introduction of knowledge of result (KR) performance in vigilance task was more stable over time in the KR condition, performance declined in the no-KR condition (Shaw et. al. 2009). Helton et. al. (2011) claims that with the use of warning response times were faster, errors of commission lower, but errors of omission higher in the reliable-warning task in comparison with the no-warning. In another intriguing study of knowledge of results, Loeb and Schmidt (1960) found suggestive evidence that false knowledge of results also improves subject's performance on auditory vigilance tasks. Again, Szalma et. al. (2006) investigated the impact of knowledge of results (KR) format on the performance and stress associated with a vigilance task and revealed that there is a trade-off in the effectiveness of KR in reducing false alarms and misses.

On the backdrop of these research findings that present study aims to explore the effect of automated warning on vigilance in clinically normal participants.

METHOD

Participants

The participants were selected using random sampling technique. Participants were 95 clinically normal individuals (Mean age=22.62, SD=6.51) chosen from higher secondary schools or colleges or from professional institutions of metropolitan areas of Kolkata, India. Participants were instructed adequately and were briefed about the nature of the study. Written permission was taken from the institutions they belonged to, at the same time participant's individual consent was also taken. The samples were assessed according to their socio-economic status, intelligence capacity, general health and clerical speed and accuracy scores. Measures on all these variables were controlled statistically.

Selection Criteria

Inclusion Criteria

1. Age between 18-35 years
2. Belong to middle or upper-middle socioeconomic status
3. Motivation (as per verbal report) and available time to participate in experimental sessions.

Exclusion Criteria

1. Presence of any past psychiatric illness or organic disorder or chronic illness.
2. Presence of any mental disability.
3. Presence of any physical disability.
4. Lack of motivation for the treatment or lack of time availability to attend the sessions.

Tools Used

Information Schedule: An information schedule is used to collect personal and familial information about the subject. The schedule was prepared by the present investigator as per the requirements of the present study.

GHQ: A Bengali adaptation (Basu and Dasgupta, 1996) of the 30-item General Health Questionnaire (GHQ) of Goldberg (1972) was used as a unidimensional measure for

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screening functional psychiatric illness to detect non-psychotic psychiatric disturbances in a variety of settings

Standard Progressive Matrices: Standard Progressive Matrices by J. C. Raven (1938) was used to measure the intellectual functioning of the participants.

DAT- Speed and Accuracy Test: The Clerical Speed and Accuracy subtest of Differential Aptitude Test (DAT) developed by G. K. Bennett, H. G. Seashore and A. G. Wesman (1947) was used to measure individual's speed and accuracy in cognitive tasks in normal participants.

A software program: The participants were given a visual vigilance task using a software program (Panda et. al., 2011). They were asked to detect a target stimulus, that is, a small pink rounded rectangle or small yellow rounded rectangle in respective trials among randomly occurring buffer stimuli of different color, size and shape. The target stimulus was discriminable from the non-target stimuli. Participants were asked to press a particular key on computer whenever they see a target stimulus to occur on computer screen. Whenever participants made two consecutive errors in target stimulus detection, a warning signal occurred. The warning was visual in nature and appeared as a big red colored star in the middle of the screen. The response of the participants were measured in terms of successful detection of target stimuli (hit), failure in detection of a target stimuli (miss) and response given to a buffer stimuli in lieu of target stimuli (false alarm).

Procedure

- First, the samples, following the selection criteria was randomly chosen for the study. All the participants were explained about the present study and were assured about confidentiality of their responses and identity.
- The participants were given the information schedule, GHQ, SPM, DAT Speed and Accuracy. DAT Speed and Accuracy was administered as the stimulus was a software program and response involved computer application. It was assumed that processing speed accuracy would be a variable to control to observe only the effect of warning.
- Then the vigilance task was given to each of the samples using the software program.
- For the vigilance task there was a Control Condition (CC) and an Experimental Conditions (EC₁). In the Control Condition only the visual vigilance task was given to the samples.
- In EC₁ along with the vigilance task, whenever the subject made two consecutive errors an automated warning was given to warn them about their response errors in the assigned task and to suggest that they need to be more cautious about their subsequent response choices.
- The response of the participants from both the conditions was taken into account in terms of hit scores and false alarm scores.

Data Computation and Statistical Analyses

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At first, the data were tabulated following the scoring key of each checklist and for each individual separately. The entire data was then analyzed using SPSS 21.

RESULT

Table: 1 showing the descriptive statistics of the distribution of DV measures of Normal group

		C_HIT	C_FA	E1_HIT	E1_FA
N		95	95	95	95
Mean		119.49	39.91	116.83	30.60
Std. Error of Mean		2.577	2.125	2.666	1.711
Median		126.00	33.00	120.00	26.00
Mode		101	26	134	69
Std. Deviation		25.114	20.713	25.982	16.673
Skewness		-.950	.931	-.577	.793
Kurtosis		.392	.092	-.606	.078
Minimum		51	7	59	4
Maximum		155	90	154	69

As per the proximity of the mean and median value of the DV measures and the observed skewness and kurtosis of the DV measurement the data is considered for parametric analysis.

Role of Automated Warning on Vigilance in Normal Participants

Does automated warning improves performance in vigilance task? This section explores the relationship of automated warning with vigilance. In the control condition (CC) no warning was given, but a warning is used in the experimental condition (EC₁). The performance in vigilance task has been measured through correct detection of target stimuli (hit score) and scores on detection of target stimuli when it is in fact a non-target stimuli (false alarm score). The relationships of automated warning with other covariates are also assessed. Age, socio economic status (SES) of individuals along with their general health (GH), intellectual capacity (IQ), and speed and accuracy (SA) was measured. Initially it was planned that these variables will be taken as controls in the study but during actual data collection it came up that variations in these variables are supposed to turn up with new relationships in the domain of vigilance. The mean and standard deviations of the above mentioned variables are depicted in Table 2.

Table: 2 Descriptive Statistics of Control variables

	Mean	SD
Age	22.62	6.512
SES	2.77	1.026
GHQ	7.75	6.046
IQ	39.79	11.200
WM	6.74	1.151
SA	53.40	14.261
C_HIT	119.49	25.114
C_FA	39.91	20.713

The first step in exploring the effect of automated warning was to look at the relationships between variables (Table: 3). IQ and speed and accuracy were found to have significant positive correlation with the hit scores and a significant negative correlation with the false alarm scores. No other variable that was assumed to effect vigilance initially had any relationship with vigilance. Intellectual functioning is found to be significantly correlated with speed and accuracy. Socioeconomic status has been found to be positively correlated with intellectual capacity and working memory functioning and negatively with general health. Age is found to be negatively correlated with speed and accuracy.

Table: 3 Correlation Studies of Control variables with vigilance

	Age	SES	GH	IQ	SA	C_HIT	C_FA
Age	1						
SES	.106	1					
GH	-.059	-.209*	1				
IQ	.003	.301**	-.056	1			
SA	-.360**	.161	-.008	.449**	1		
C_HIT	-.014	.160	-.120	.293**	.309**	1	
C_FA	.012	-.280**	.124	-.269**	-.301**	-.202*	1

Role of Warning on *Hit* score of Vigilance in Normal Participants

To find out the effect of automated warning on hit scores of vigilance a repeated measure ANCOVA was done. As speed and accuracy and IQ both correlate with vigilance scores they are considered to be covariates. Though a correlation exist between these covariates still as the value

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of correlation is less than .5 it's considered as low correlation and hence they fulfill the criteria of being covariates in a repeated measure ANCOVA design.

Table: 4 Showing the Mean, SD & F value of Control and Experimental Condition

Conditions	Mean	SD	N	Wilk's Lamda Value	F	df	Sig.
No Warning	119.49	25.114	95	.971	2.840	1	.095
Warning	116.83	25.982	95				

Table 4 shows no significant effect of automated warning was found on hit scores of vigilance in normal participants while controlling for the covariates. The Mauchly's W value equals to 1, indicating that the assumption of sphericity is met in repeated measure design.

Role of Warning on *False alarm (FA)* score of Vigilance in Normal Participants

To find out the effect of automated warning on false alarm scores of vigilance a repeated measure ANCOVA was done. As speed and accuracy both correlate with the false alarm scores of vigilance they are again considered to be covariates.

Table 5 shows significant effect of automated warning on false alarm scores of vigilance in normal participants while controlling for the covariates. Here, unlike hit scores, the mean scores indicate significant increase in performance efficiency with the introduction of warning in vigilance task. The Mauchly's W value (1) indicates that the assumption of sphericity has been met in repeated measure design.

Table: 5 Showing Mean, SD & F value of Control and Experimental Condition

Conditions	Mean	SD	N	Wilk's Lamda Value	F	df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
No Warning	39.91	20.713	95	.647	51.336	1	.000	.353
Warning	30.60	16.673	95					

The effect size of .353 reflects that 35.3% variability in the false alarm score can be attributed to introduction of warning signal in experimental condition.

To further explore the effects of the covariates preliminary analysis was done (Table 6) to have a more clear idea about the nature of the covariates. To find out the effect of different levels of IQ and speed and accuracy both of the variables were blocked according to their first and third

quartile. Hence the blocking resulted in two IQ groups – high and low and two speed and accuracy groups – high and low.

Table: 6 Descriptive Statistics of Covariates

		IQ	Speed Accuracy
N		95	95
Mean		39.87	53.40
Median		41.00	51.00
Mode		40	47
Std. Deviation		10.979	14.261
Skewness		-.694	.359
Kurtosis		.033	-.395
Minimum		13	20
Maximum		59	89
Percentiles	25	32.00	43.00
	50	41.00	51.00
	75	47.00	63.00

To have a look at the effect of the covariates it was found that the effect of intellectual functioning was not significant, whereas the effect of speed and accuracy is significant (Table 7), reflecting that the different levels of speed accuracy act differently in no-warning to warning conditions in vigilance task. The η_p^2 indicate .083 for speed and accuracy.

Table: 7 Showing Inferential Statistics of effect of covariates on false alarm scores of vigilance in normal participants

Source	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
IQ	1	811.315	1.490	.225	.016
SA	1	4511.753	8.288	.005	.083

Next, with the two speed accuracy groups two repeated measure analysis was run consecutively. The effect of the warning conditions was statistically significant in both low ($F=9.363$, $p=0.006$) and high ($F=14.284$, $p=.001$) speed and accuracy groups. For both the groups the false alarm score decreased with the introduction of warning (Table 8). But for the high speed accuracy group the mean score was much lower than that of low speed accuracy group.

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Table: 8 Showing Descriptive and Inferential Statistics of effect of automated warning on false alarm scores of vigilance between both the Speed Accuracy groups in normal participants

SA GROUP	Conditions	Mean	SD	N	Wilk's Lamda Value	F	df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Low	No Warning	48.58	24.624	24	.711	9.363	1	.006	.289
	Warning	38.92	18.418	24					
	Total	43.75	21.521	24					
High	No Warning	29.62	13.147	24	.617	14.284	1	.001	.383
	Warning	21.12	8.502	24					
	Total	25.37	10.8245	24					

The effect size ($\eta_p^2 = 0.289$) measure indicates 28.9% of the change in false alarm score can be attributed by automated warning in low processing speed group, whereas for high speed accuracy group it increases to 38.3%, i.e., 38.3% of the variability in false alarm scores can be explained by warning in high processing speed group.

DISCUSSION

The findings of the present study indicate increment in performance accuracy of vigilance task in presence of automated warning. Though the error of omission scores remain unaffected by automated warning, it was evident that introduction of warning signals reduced the error of commission scores. The effect size measure reflects quite a large effect of automated warning on the error of commission scores according to Cohen's (1988) guideline. Further, intellectual capacity of an individual at the same time processing speed and accuracy of a clinically normal participant both are found to be correlated with vigilance.

The present study refutes the suggestion of the previous finding that vigilance performance remain unaffected with the use of warning mechanism (Helton et. al., 2008). Instead of inducing anxiety to have a deteriorating effect on performance, knowledge of result actually helps clinically normal individuals to perform more accurately in vigilance task. It is evident from the present study though introduction of warning could not improve hit scores in vigilance it restores a cognitive alertness in the individual so that error of commission scores decreased. Even if the warning signal induces stress, it works as a eustress to the individual and improves vigilance performance. The optimum environment for vigilance tasks is rather more arousing than the optimum for tasks which are intrinsically more interesting (Poulton, 1977). The findings of the

present study support the suggestions of previous findings (Shaw et. al. 2009; Helton et. al., 2011) that warning improves vigilance.

Vigilance had traditionally been associated with low cognitive demand and vigilance decrement with a decline in arousal pursuant to the low cognitive demand (Frankmann & Adams, 1962) but these views are no longer widely held. More recent studies indicate that vigilance is hard work, requiring the allocation of significant cognitive resources, and inducing significant levels of stress (Parasuraman & Davies, 1977). Reductions in arousal generally correspond to reductions in vigilance. Arousal is a component of vigilance, though not, as once believed, the sole source of the main effect of the vigilance decrement (Moruzzi & Magoun, 1949) As such, subcortical brain regions associated with arousal play a critical role in the performance of vigilance tasks. Because the amygdala plays an important role in the recognition of emotional stimuli, it appears to be an important brain structure in the regulation of vigilance (Sternberg, 2009).

Further, the present study reveals a probable relationship between vigilance and both intellectual capacity and processing speed accuracy, suggesting that increase in intellectual capacity and processing speed improves vigilance. It could be noticed that individuals with high processing speed got more benefited by warning as compared to their counterparts. Research indicate that measures of intelligence are significantly correlated with mental speed and that for some measures this relationship shows a trend toward strengthening as the complexity of the speeded tasks increase (Leah & Vernon, 2008). Further, individuals with faster perceptual speed tend to also have faster processing in general on mundane tasks that require them to identify a basic stimulus and respond. Vernon argued that processing information faster neurologically may permit for one to learn more. However, although research is hinting towards a connection between neurological processing speed and intelligence, there are no definitive answers as to why of yet. Many leading researchers believe that it is a result of overall more efficient cognitive processing. Hence, the participants who were high in processing speed are more efficient to receive the warning signals and make the most use of it. Thus the study emphasizes the role of processing speed and accuracy in successful accomplishment of vigilance task.

Overall the study indicates if we can incorporate warning signals to provide feedback to the participants during performance of a visual vigilance task the performance accuracy can be increased. The finding of the study can be used in defense services, industrial set up as well as during performing day to day cognitive tasks that demand sustained attention or vigilance.

KEY POINTS

- Vigilance as a cognitive aspect in day to day life has not been explored too vividly in the history of vigilance research.
- The present study aims to explore the effect of automated warning on vigilance.

Automated Warning Reduces Error of Commission in Vigilance: A Study on Indian Adults

- Results reflect no significant effect of warning on error of omission scores but error of commission scores were significantly reduced with the introduction of warning in vigilance task.
- The study suggests if auto-suggestions or warning systems can be incorporated in regular cognitive tasks that require vigilance, performance accuracy of normal adults can be improved.

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How Anxiety Can Affect and Change Perceptual Process?

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ABSTRACT:

What we have tried to express in this paper includes the nature of anxiety and perception separately and through that we have explained that anxiety can be considered an important component in perceptual process, though it has always been believed as a psychological and neurological problem.

Keywords: Anxiety, Perception, Stress, Stimuli

INTRODUCTION

Perception by definition is the process of organizing and interpreting our surrounding environment. This involves our five senses of sight, sound, smell, taste, and touch. We receive information of our surroundings called stimulus through these five senses, which is then processed through to our brain.

Anxiety disorders can undertake many forms, having multiple causes, acting together to create the neurological disorders. Psychological characteristics, Life experiences and genetic factors all have an important role to develop anxiety. What is common to all forms of anxiety disorders is an increased state of arousal or fear. As a whole, arousal or fear is a response of the nervous system to an external stimulus, so called as the stressor in this mentioned case. So in case of anxious individuals, there is no external stressor. Some signals are activated internally in the brains which trigger the stress response. To realize how these spontaneous signals are generated, it is important to know the correspondent structures in the brain. Researches involving brain imaging technology and petrochemical techniques have indicated that the amygdale and the hippocampus have important roles in generating stress responses. In this article, we will go to present a brief description about how perceptual system works, what is nature of anxiety and how it changes our perceptual aspects.

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SENSUAL STIMULI:

Each of the five perceptual senses functions at an individual level in processing the stimulus. Our eyes capture what we see and the visual is then processed through the retina using cones and rods. The light entering our eye triggers photochemical reaction in rods and cones in back of retina. The chemical reaction in turn activates bipolar cells. Bipolar cells then activate the ganglion cells, the axons of which converge to form the optic nerve. The optic nerve transmits information to the brain's visual cortex via the thalamus.

Similarly, our ears transform sound waves into nerve impulses that our brain interprets. This feat is achieved by the equally complex system where the outer ear funnels sound waves to the eardrum. The bones of the middle ear amplify and relay the eardrum's vibrations through the oval window into the fluid filled cochlea. The resulting pressure changes in the cochlear fluid cause the basilar membrane to ripple, bending the air cells on the surface. Hair cell movements trigger impulses at the base of the nerve cells, whose fibers converge to form auditory nerve, which sends neural messages to the thalamus and onto the auditory cortex.

Well, if we were to detail how our senses of smell, taste and touch perform their tasks, it would be equally appalling and miraculous. This bottom – up process from the basic impact of the stimulus onto our sensory organs to the interpretation of the stimuli by our brain is just one side of the entire perceptual process.

If we were to function this way, we would be introducing ourselves every time we saw a person, or creating food every time we felt hungry. I wonder if we would have ever evolved. Yet, we did. The reason being, in our perception of the world around us, our brain also works top – down (beginning in the brain) to process the stimuli received by our senses. This involves a cognitive process using our experiences and expectations already stored in our brain.

This two – way process of perceiving our surroundings helps us recognize familiar faces, objects, savor the smell of a home – cooked meal, enjoy the sound of music playing in our neighbour's house. Although we view sensation and perception separately to analyze and discuss them, they are actual parts of one continuous process. Sensory analysis begins at the entry level, with information flowing from the sensory receptors to the brain (bottom – up processing). And, analysis also begins with the brain and flows down, filtering information through our experiences and expectations to produce perceptions (top – down processing).

Main factors in perception process:

There are various factors affecting the top – down processing of our perception. We generally have a tendency to organize stimuli into coherent groups. To bring order and form to the basic sensations, our minds follow certain rules such as proximity, similarity, continuity, connectedness and closure for grouping. Gestalt psychologists (twentieth century German psychologists) proposed that in perception the whole may exceed the sum of its parts. For

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example, combine sodium, a corrosive metal, with chlorine, a poisonous gas, and something very different emerges – table salt. Like – wise, a unique perceived form emerges from a stimulus components. They emphasized our tendency to integrate pieces of information into meaningful wholes.

Another very important factor to influence our perception is our own experience we build over our lifetime. Experience guides, sustains, and maintains the brain's neural organization. We retain the imprint of early sensory experiences far into the future. We form mental predispositions called perceptual sets that function as lens through which we perceive the world. Through experience we form concepts or “schemas” that organize and interpret unfamiliar information. Also, our senses interact with one another. To say, that they influence one another, as when the smell of food influences its taste. Being told that a wine costs \$90 rather than its real \$10 pricemakes an inexpensive wine taste better and triggers more activity in a brain area that responds to pleasant experiences. As happens with the painplacebo effect, the brain's thinking frontal lobes offer information that other brainregions act upon.

Our pre – existing schemas influence how we interpret ambiguous sensations with top – down processing. The surrounding context helps create expectations that guide our perceptions. Emotional context can colour our interpretation of other people's behaviors, as well as our own. Our experiences, assumptions and expectations may give us a perceptual set that greatly influences what we perceive.

NATURE OF ANXIETY:

Anxiety is both an emotion and a cognition. Freud's psychoanalytic theory proposed that, beginning in childhood, people repress intolerable impulses, ideas, and feelings and this submerged mental energy sometimes produces mystifying symptoms, such as anxiety. Anxiety is a part of everybody's life. We may feel anxious, when we talk to strangers or in front of a group, look down from a tall building, face a board of interviewers, or on the first date.

Under the circumstances our mental predisposition is filled with emotions such as fear, negative feelings of low self – esteem or lack of self – confidence. What we try to perceive thereafter, under the effect of such negative perceptual set, is bound to be skeptical. Fortunately for most of us we overcome anxiety soon after we start experiencing the situation. It might just turn out to be another normal experience stored in our memory for future reference. But if this anxiety becomes intense and persistent like having sweaty palms, breathlessness, a person is said to have a psychological disorder. Anxiety disorders are psychological disorders characterized by distressing persistent anxiety or maladaptive behaviours that reduce anxiety.

Anxiety disorders are distinguished by the intensity of the emotion itself and the intensity of the impact of such anxieties on a person's perception of his own self and his surroundings. People

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with generalized anxiety disorder (GAD) feel persistently and uncontrollably tense and apprehensive, for no apparent reason. In the more extreme panic disorder, anxiety escalates into periodic episodes of intense dread. Those with a phobia may be irrationally afraid of a specific object or situation. Persistent and repetitive thoughts (obsessions) and actions (compulsions) characterize obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD). Symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) include four or more weeks of haunting memories, nightmares, social withdrawal, jumpy anxiety, and sleep problems following some traumatic and uncontrollable event.

In its own way, each of the above mentioned anxiety disorders, our perception and thereby the quality of our life. Perception is not merely a projection of the world onto our brain. Rather sensations are disassembled into information bits that the brain then reassembles into its own functional model of the external world. Our brain constructs our perception. When we know a thing, it's hard to mentally simulate what it's like not to know. For example, when a person is attacked by a fierce dog, he could later develop a fear for all dogs. When bad events happen unpredictably and uncontrollably anxiety often develops. In one survey, 58 percent of those with social phobia experienced their disorder after a traumatic event. Once we have formed a wrong idea about reality, we have more difficulty seeing the truth.

Research shows that anxiety could be in our biology. We humans seem biologically prepared to fear threats faced by our ancestors. Our phobias focus on such specific fears: spiders, snakes, and other animals; close spaces and heights; storms and darkness. Our modern fears can also have an evolutionary explanation. For example, a fear of flying may come from our biological predisposition (perceptual set) to fear confinement and heights. Just as our phobias focus on dangers faced by our ancestors, our compulsive acts typically exaggerate behaviours that contributed to our species' survival. Grooming gone wild becomes hair pulling, washing up becomes ritual hand washing, checking territorial boundaries becomes rechecking an already locked door.

Some people more than others seem predisposed to anxiety. Genes matter. Pair a traumatic event with a sensitive, high-strung temperament and the result may be a new phobia. Genes influence disorders by regulating neurotransmitters. Some studies point to an anxiety gene that affects brain levels of serotonin, a neurotransmitter that influences sleep and mood. Other studies implicate genes that regulate the neurotransmitter glutamate. With too much glutamate, the brain's alarm centers become overactive.

Generalized anxiety, panic attack, PTSD, and even obsessions and compulsions are also manifested biologically as an arousal of brain areas involved in impulse control and habitual behaviours. Brain scans of people with OCD reveal elevated activity in specific brain areas during behaviours such as compulsive hand washing, checking, ordering, or hoarding. Though it is clear that biology underlies anxiety, the biological perspective cannot by itself explain all aspects of anxiety disorders.

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Anxiety disorders may be caused by medical factors, genetics, brain chemistry, environmental factors, substance abuse or a combination of these. Anxiety can be learned from experiences too. Through conditioning, the short list of naturally painful and frightening events can multiply into a long list of human fears. One such learning process which can contribute to anxiety is stimulus generalization, as in the example of a dog attack. All dogs are perceived to be dangerous. An anxiety for any dog in general develops.

Another learning process, reinforcement, helps maintain our phobias and compulsions after they arise. Avoiding or escaping the feared situation reduces anxiety, thus reinforcing the phobic behaviours. Feeling anxious or fearing a panic attack, a person may go inside and be reinforced by feeling calmer. Compulsive behaviours operate similarly. If washing your hands relieves your feeling of anxiety, you may wash your hands again when those feelings return. We may also learn fear (anxiety) by observing others' fear. Human parents transmit fears to their children.

There are instances of strained or even broken relations. People with GAD worry continually, and they are often jittery, agitated, and sleep deprived. Concentration is difficult, as attention switches from worry to worry, and their tension and apprehension may leak out through furrowed brows, twitching eyelids, trembling, perspiration, or fidgeting. One of the worst characteristics of this disorder is that the person cannot identify, and therefore cannot deal with or avoid, its cause. This could lead to constant frustration. GAD is often accompanied with depressed mood. Much of what we perceive comes not just from the world “out there” but also from what's behind our eyes and between our ears. We often perceive what we expect to see.

Anxiety is most often triggered by the stress in our lives. Usually anxiety is a response to outside forces, but it is possible that we make ourselves anxious with negative self – talk : a habit of always telling ourselves the worst will happen. We may at times be obsessed with senseless or offensive thoughts that will not go away. Obsessive thoughts and compulsive behaviours may interfere with everyday living and cause the person distress. The obsessive thoughts become so haunting, the compulsive rituals so senselessly time – consuming that effective functioning becomes impossible.

Some people experience intense fear of being scrutinized by others called social phobia. Those with social phobia avoid potentially embarrassing social situations, such as speaking up, eating out, or going to parties – or will sweat, tremble, or have diarrhea when doing so. Social phobia is as simple as shyness taken to an extreme. Have we all not experienced shyness in our lives? People who have experienced several panic attacks may come to fear the fear itself and avoid situations where the panic has struck before. Given such fear, people may avoid being outside the home, in a crowd, on a bus, or on an elevator.

Anxiety whether normally inherent or a learned disorder has a deep impact on our everyday functioning. The complaints of recurring haunting memories and nightmares, a numbed social withdrawal, jumpy anxiety, and insomnia – are typical of a post traumatic stress disorder. Symptoms reported by battle – scarred veterans, survivors of accidents, disasters, and violent and

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sexual assaults are all alike. Research indicates the greater one's emotional distress during a trauma, the higher the risk for post – traumatic symptoms. And the more frequent an assault experience, the more adverse the long – term outcomes tend to be.

Anxiety intensified hurts, at times leading to physical problems, such as high blood pressure, or hyper – tension. Ironically, we need to be thankful for occasional pain. Pain is our body's way of telling us something has gone wrong. Drawing our attention to an injury (external or internal), a traumatic experience in the past, pain orders us to change our behavior.

Take the instance of those rare people born without the ability to feel pain (lack of sense of touch, similar to blindness or deafness) may experience severe injury or even die before adulthood. Without the discomfort that makes us occasionally shift position, their joints fail from excess strain, and without the warnings of pain, the effects of unchecked infections and injuries accumulate. Our memories in part exist to protect us in future. So there is biological wisdom in not being able to forget our most emotional or traumatic experiences, our greatest embarrassments, our worst accidents, and our most horrid experiences.

Our brain does more than register information about the world. Perception is not just opening a shutter and letting a picture print itself on the brain. We constantly filter sensory information and infer perceptions that make sense to us. Mind matters!

Given an object, our brain computes its colour, size, distance, movement and other aspects relative to its context (surroundings). Perception is also governed by comparison. Anxiety plays a role in performing this comparison between the present circumstance/ place and the similar past experience in our memory. In moderation it helps us improve our performance in life and realize our dreams.

CONCLUSION:

Anxiety disorders show the ability of the brain to create reality in the mind of human being. Perception as we mentioned above is a multiple process which can be affected by anxiety. This way we can assume factor of anxiety as a very important element which can not only play its role as a malfunction in process of perception but also, we may define it as a secondary functional thing in the whole perceptual process. Perception is mostly considered as the primary step of cognition and it can be affected by anxiety in the brain when anxiety causes a disruption in information interpreting system of the brain.

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Study of Academic Achievement in Relation to Family Environment among Adolescents

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ABSTRACT:

The adolescent is the real capital of any society and we should protect and preserve it for the betterment of the society and nation. The present study is an attempt towards examine the pattern of relationship between the academic achievement and family environment. The research was carried out of 200 adolescents in the age group of 15 to 18 years. The researchers used academic achievement scores which were the aggregate percentage of marks from the previous two classes, serve as indicators of academic achievement. Moos (1974) Family Environment Scale (FES) was used to study the impact of family on adolescent's academic success. The academic scores of girls were found better than the boys while boys lead the girls on family environment scores where the t-value was significant at 0.01 levels. There was a clear cut difference between the scores of high and low groups and the t-value was again significant at 0.01 levels. The obtained results indicate that the adolescent experiencing healthy family environments are found to have higher academic achievement in comparison to children belonging to low family environment.

Keywords: *Academic Achievement, Family Environment, Adolescent.*

INTRODUCTION

Adolescence is viewed as a period of increased diversity of social roles, with expectation from diverse role relationships, some of which may be in conflict. Many of these theories reflect the magic of adolescence. In the works of Hall, Erickson, Piaget and others, there is a clear message about the emergence of a potential for changing the course of social evolution in adolescence. At many levels, such as sexual activity, logical thinking, moral philosophy, and definition of personal identity, adolescents have the possibility of making new choices and new solutions that will change the course for themselves and for others.

Adolescence is a period when rapid changes occur in the physical and psychological development of an individual. It is considered as a period of 'storm and stress'. The adolescents are in the process of deciding their goals, priorities and values. These decisions go a long way in influencing their cognitive styles, which include personal opinions, experiences, ideologies, beliefs etc to make the judgment about the situation.

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According to Mc Candles (1970) “Adolescence is both a time of drastic change and a part of the continuous stream of human development. Adolescence is a bridge period, a time of shifting from one stage to another.”

The home and the school are the two important institutions that prepare children to become functional members of society. Society places great importance on educating its youth, recognizing that the acquisition of specialized skills and knowledge facilitates upward social mobility. Human child cannot grow up without some adult care and love. We would say that love includes delight in being with, desire to be with, desire for contact and response and tendency to give to the other person.

Academic achievement is the major concern of educational policy makers of every country. It has been accepted that environment both inside and outside the school in which the child grows has a great influence on the academic achievement of the students. Among them, socio economic status, social phobia, anxiety, learning disabilities, parent styles, learning styles, classroom climate etc. are some such variables. So care should be taken to increase the rate of achievement and find out the hindrances that decrease the achievement rate.

Academic achievement is defined by Crow and Crow (1969) as the extent to which a learner is profiting from instruction in a given area of learning or in other words, achievement is reflected by the extent to which skill and knowledge has been imparted to him. Academic achievement also denotes the knowledge attained and skill developed in the school subject, usually designed by test scores. The level of achieving is how far a student succeeds in a particular exam or standardized test (Reber, 1985).

Sharma et al. (2011) defined academic achievement as the outcome of the training imparted to students by the teacher in school situation. Halawah (2006) opined that academic achievement is accomplished by actual execution of class work in the school setting. It is typically assessed by using teacher's ratings, class tests and examinations hold by the academic institutions or by the educational boards. Academic achievement is positively related with motivation and family environment.

Academic achievement is the maximum performance in all activities at school after a period of training. Achievement encompasses student's ability and performance; it is multidimensional; it is intricately related to human growth and cognitive, emotional, social, and physical development; it reflects the whole child; it is not related to a single instance, but occurs across time and levels, through a student's life in public school and on into post secondary years and working life.

Bogensneider (1999) viewed that parental involvement was a force on achievement. Parents who are more involved in their adolescent's schooling regardless of parent's gender or educational level have offspring who do better in school irrespective of the child's gender, ethnicity or family structure. Parental involvement works for everyone.

During the past few decades family environment had been identified as being a contributing factor in a child's educational, cognitive and affective development. Families vary greatly in structure and functioning. Variations exist also in school and in children themselves. Given this diversity in families, there is a need to understand how children's experience within the family contributes to their educational outcomes.

One of the major socializing agents which contribute a potent source of impact on him is his immediate family. Family is the child's world in which the personality is shaped and his character is formed and within the family the interactional factors play upon him and influence his personality to a great extent. The training provided in the home is practical rather than

theoretical. It provides most conducive environment for the development of the virtues which humanize the children's life.

Because of its pre-eminence the family probably has the greatest influence on a child's future life than any other agent. All schools of thought, involved in the study of personality are in agreement that child imitates his parents; his acquisition of pictures of social roles and his tendency to act out in later relationship are all associated with his interaction with his parents. This interaction lets us comprehend the resultant personality characteristics, if dealt with, in a particular parents-behaviour toward child rather than in a general theoretical way. Since few researches in India have attempted to focus on the influence of changing family environment, there is need to study how different family process variables like cognitive stimulation, achievement orientations recreational orientation and home structure, relate to academic achievement of students.

Family is the environment where the children learned to use their faculties and understand and cope with the physical world. It is time when they don't bother with trivial things, such as the family relationship, because they know they are the kingpin of their family. It is the place, where they learn how family relationship work, by observing their parents, grandparents, siblings and rest of the family members deal with each other. They enjoy meeting them on family vacations and family reunions and exchanging family reunions gifts with them. Healthy family relationships, Home cosines, and love of the dearest people, understanding and care.... everybody needs in this life.

In family we get education, learn lifetime values and obtain strength needed to become personalities. When we grow, we learn to respect people who live close to us. We observe our parents and then we either follow their example or choose our own path in life. Hence family relationships start showering their colours of the family members.

In favorable circumstances, adolescents acquire critical adaptive skills in the family among friends, and in the neighborhood but most will needed added skills gained through systematic instruction and practice in the classroom. Teaching skills in the areas of time and finance management, health and nutrition, parenting and family relations, job preparedness, decision making and coping strategies would help children acquire the knowledge, ability and attitudes necessary for success in life. The relationship between perceived parental involvement and adolescent psychological well being is based on two realities. The first reality, the home environment, is the initial social arena in which adolescents have remained more consistently under the influence and supervision of their parents. Later, these individuals begin to seek on alternate reality, separating from parents and seeking inclusion with peers during adolescence (Santrock & Yussen, 1984). Adolescents begin building their own self-concept through observing the reactions directed toward them by vital individuals in their lives (Gibson and Jefferson, 2006). Parental involvement remains critical to the adolescent- parent relationship, because the level of involvement signals to youth their importance to the parents (Gecas & Schwalble, 1986). Furthermore, when parents give efforts to increase their knowledge of adolescents behaviours, interests and activities, it emphasis parental caring and supports the adolescent-parent relationship (Stattin & Kerr, 2000).

Moula et al (2010) explored the relationship between academic achievement motivation and home environment among standard pupils. The results indicated a low but positive relationship (0.15) of parental education with academic achievement of the students that revealed a positive relationship between parental education and academic achievement of their children.

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Kazmi et al. (2011) evaluated the impact of father's style of dealing with their children at home and their academic achievements at school. The results of this study revealed father's involvement had positive significant relationship with academic achievement of their wards.

On parental involvement and academic achievement, studies have shown to date that the two constructs seems to be positively related. Findings have demonstrated that parent's involvement in the education of the children has been found to be of benefit to parents, children, and schools (Tella and Tella, 2003; Campbell, 1995). Zhang and Carrasquillo (1995) also similarly remarked that when children are surrounded by caring, capable parents and are able to enjoy nurturing and moderate competitive kinship, a foundation for literacy is built with no difficulty. We can state that the more intensively parents are involved in their children's learning; the more beneficial are the achievement effects. Thus, it is believed that when parents monitor homework, encourage participation in extracurricular activities, are active in parents-teacher associations, and help children develop plans for their future; children are more likely to respond and do well in school.

Therefore it can be summed up that home environment including parental encouragement, involvement, parental interest, behaviour, parental aspirations, parenting skills and parenting styles have direct influence on the academic achievement of the students. Parenting styles are found to be more important that influence significantly the educational achievement of the students. Educated parents provide conducive home environment that entails parent encouragement that proves to be catalyst in boosting and maintaining achievement motivation among the students that in turn influence their academic achievement.

METHODOLOGY

Objectives

1. To study the academic achievement of adolescents.
2. To study the family environment of adolescents.
3. To study the interaction effect among all the variables under study.

Hypotheses

1. It is hypothesized that there exists significant difference in the academic achievement of male and female adolescents.
2. It is hypothesized that there exists significant difference in the family environment of male and female adolescents.
3. There lies positive interaction effect among all the variables under study.

Sample

A convenient random sampling technique was used for present sample of 200 students at Secondary and higher secondary school level selected from various secondary and higher secondary schools of Chandigarh, Mohali and Panchkula, including male (n = 100) and female students (n = 100). The age ranges from 15 to 18 years. As per the requirement of 2x2 cells (50 in each cell of the paradigm) the sample of 200 adolescents was chosen. In the end the researcher thanked the participants for their valuable cooperation.

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Tools

The following tools were used in the present study to obtain reliable data:

Family Environment Scale: The Family Environment Scale (FES), which is development by Moos (1974). It consists of 90 true/false questions divided into three dimensions and 10 subscales. In the Relationship dimension are three subscales: cohesion, expressiveness, and conflict. The Personal Growth dimension consists of five subscales: independence, achievement orientation, intellectual cultural orientation, active-recreational orientation, and moral-religious emphasis. The System Maintenance dimension includes two subscales: organization and control. This instrument has good internal consistency with alphas that range from 0.74 to 0.87 for three subscales and the overall stability is very good with two-week test-retest reliabilities that range from 0.77 to 0.92 (Hill, 1995). In the current study, the internal consistency was 0.71, 0.74, and 0.75 for the Relationship, Personal Growth, and System Maintenance subscales respectively.

Academic achievement: The aggregate percentage of marks from the previous two classes, serve as indicators of academic achievement. Academic achievement of the students was collected by giving them self constructed information sheets, in which they had to given the aggregate marks of the previous two classes.

Procedure

To study academic achievement of school going adolescents the researcher will visited different schools of Chandigarh, Mohali and Panchkula for which the prior permission was obtained from the concerned school authority. After selecting a convenient group of adolescents the test scores, obtained by the students, were collected by providing a self constructed information sheets in which they had given the aggregate marks of previous two classes. The scores were then categorized into, by calculating median, high academic scores and low academic scores. Thereafter, the family environment scale was administered with each group of adolescents.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The Results of Statistical Analysis of Research Data are presented in this Chapter. The data was analyzed and interpreted using statistical techniques such as: Mean, Standard Deviation, t-test, and the detail of the analysis, interpretation of data and discussion of results are presented as below:

Table No. 1: Shows Means, Standard deviation and t-values among boys (N= 100) and girls (N= 100)

Dimensions	Gender	Mean	Standard Deviation	t-value
Academic Achievement	Boys	65.39	13.70	-.688
	Girls	66.87	15.07	
Family Environment	Boys	54.19	9.63	2.143*
	Girls	51.28	8.55	

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The results have been calculated on the various aspects. Firstly the descriptive statistics was used. The mean was calculated on the basis of gender. The results have concluded that the mean score for males on academic achievement is 65.39 and that of female is 66.87. These results are supporting the statement as “The world has changed around boys, and they have not adapted as well as girls, said Claudia Buchmann, professor of sociology at Ohio State University and co-author of the book *The Rise of Women: The Growing Gender Gap in Education and What it Means for American Schools*. The present study reveals that recent claims of a “boy crisis,” with boys lagging behind girls in school achievement, are not accurate because girls’ grades have been consistently higher than boys’ across several decades with no significant changes in recent years. As for why girls perform better in academics than boys, the researcher speculated that social and cultural factors could be among several possible explanations. Parents may assume boys are better at math and science so they might encourage girls to put more effort into their studies, which could lead to the slight advantage girls have in all courses. Gender differences in learning styles are another possibility. Previous researches have shown girls tend to study in order to understand the materials, whereas boys emphasize performance, which indicates a focus on the final grades. Mastery of the subject matter generally produces better marks than performance emphasis, so this could account in part for males’ lower marks than females.

Women now far outnumber men among recent college graduates in most industrialized countries (OECD, 2008). As Goldin, Katz, and Kuziemko (2006) observe, the puzzle is: “Why have women overtaken men in terms of college completion instead of simply catching up to them?” The growing female dominance in educational attainment raises new questions about gender disparities arising throughout school-ages. Girls have long obtained better grades, on average, in high school than boys.

The probability that parents would raise their female children with totally different standards and parental behaviour than those from their male children is improbable, and unsupported by any data. On the other hand, there is evidence that in the same family a smart boy will get grades of about 20% lower than his similarly smart sister.

That the problem lies in recent social problems in families, particularly the increased number of single parent families and greater numbers of children from divorced parents. There are at least two problems with this theory. One is that girls are also affected by families under stress. The other is that the issue of academic underperformance of boys is well documented in two-parent traditional nuclear families where no family stress has occurred.

Both boys and girls perceive that teachers as favouring girls over boys, according to The Metropolitan Life Survey of the American Teacher, 1997 (11).

- Both girls (57%) and boys (64%) say the teacher pays more attention to girls.
- Girls who raise their hands see themselves as getting called on "often," by greater margins (72% vs. 66%), than boys.
- More boys than girls (31% vs. 19%) feel that it is "mostly true" that teachers do not listen to what they have to say.
- Boys demand more attention in class than girls, according to the majority (61%) of teachers.
- And teachers (47%) say that girls asked for more help after class.

If we consider the physiological neural development/structure of girls than it is found that girl's corpus callosum (the connecting bundle of tissues between hemispheres) is, on average, larger than a boy's—up to 25 percent larger by adolescence. This enables more “cross talk” between hemispheres in the female brain.

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At the same time, most teachers, parents, and other professionals involved in education know that it is mainly our boys who underperform in school. Since 1981, when the U.S. Department of Education began keeping complete statistics, we have seen that boys lag behind girls in most categories. The 2000 National Assessment of Educational Progress finds boys one and one-half years behind girls in reading/writing (National Center for Education Statistics, 2000). Girls are now only negligibly behind boys in math and science, areas in which boys have historically outperformed girls (Conlin, 2003).

Also, the mean of family environment of males is 54.19 and that of females is 51.28. Therefore, it can be seen through the scores that the mean score of females on academic achievement is high as compared to males. The reason may be that girls are equally sharing the academic opportunities and they are proving themselves in all the respective areas of education and leading the boys. Girls are not allowed much in outdoor activities and so they keep themselves busy in their academics.

According to Lumpkin and Favor (2008), did a study to find out the academic achievement separately on 5 different areas like English, Mathematics, Science, Reading and Composite between female athletes and male athletes. The mean score of female was high on 3 subjects that is, on English, Reading and Composite.

The boys mean score is high on family environment as compared to the scores of females. The mean score of boys was 54.19 and for girls it was 51.28 and the t-value (2.143) is significant at 0.01 levels. The standard deviation of males in family environment is 9.63 and that of female scores is 8.55, which means that the deviation of males is more in relation to family environment than the female score. The reason may be that ours is a male dominated society and the males take more and more external and family responsibilities of their family and developing a tendency to cater the family needs and demands as per the requirements. This shows their leadership skills and decision making caliber which makes them able to involve in number of family tasks and supporting in all possible respects. It is the place, where they learn how family relationship work, by observing their parents, grandparents, siblings and rest of the family members deal with each other. Though the girls mean scores is also close to their boys counterpart. This also reveals that the girls are also contributing in catering the family environment. Family environment has been conceptualized as the quality of human interactions, from the point of view of the child. It includes those aspects which foster growth and development, such as family trust and confidence, sharing of ideas, making discussions, parental approval, affection and approval of peer activities. The obtained means and t-value shows that Parents having strong bonding with their children provide them with a secure atmosphere in which to perceive life as a series of challenges that build confidence, rather than as a progression of unsolvable problems that destroy self worth. When households are unmanaged emotionally, family relations jam up.

The family environment also affects the academic achievement, which is the product of maturational forces within the adolescent and the experiences provided by the environment (Bernard, 1971).

Table No. 2: Means, Standard deviation and t-values among High (N=100) and Low (N=100) groups

Dimensions	High/Low	Mean	Standard Deviation	t-value
Academic Achievement	High	78.10	10.059	20.217**
	Low	54.16	5.005	
Family Environment	High	56.12	8.461	5.301**
	Low	49.34	8.692	

The mean and standard deviation was also calculated on the basis of high and low groups. The female high and low group was formed separately and male high and low group was formed and then the mean and standard deviation was calculated respectively. The mean of the high group on academic achievement is 78.10 and the mean of the low group on academic achievement is 54.16. The mean of academic achievement of high group is more than that of the low group. The standard deviation of the high group on academic achievement is 10.05 and 5.00 of the low group. The obtained 't' value is 20.217 and this is found to be significant at .01 level. The obtained scores show that the high group is having healthy family environment, cooperation and support from their family. This shows that the parents are very much involved in the academics of adolescents (both boys and girls). They have every check on the academic and other activities of their wards. The family is aware about the short comings of these adolescents and tries to rectify their academic hurdles. This may be the reason that these adolescents are high in academic achievement.

Factors of independence and conflict emerged as predictors of academic achievement. Independence positively contributes to academic achievement. When adolescent perceive their families as self sufficient, having freedom to make their own decisions then academic performances increases.

Families of successful students showed high achievement orientation and organization in the family regardless of social class (Paul, 1988). Steven (1990) showed a concomitant relationship between family environment and school outcome variables. The results of Whitehead and Deborah (1991) study indicated that best predictor of grade point average was the intellectual cultural orientation of the family environment.

On the other hand, the low academic achievers may not have proper and required health family environment. The reason may include their low SES, working conditions of parents and family, educational status of parents etc. Adolescents have a poor reputation of getting along poorly with their families. The teenage boy or girl may be faced with serious problems of adjustment when there is a difference of opinions, ideals and attitudes with their parents. Conflicts may arise between the adolescent and the parents that are difficult to resolve if neither is willing nor able to compromise. It takes all the tact and understanding of parents to handle their teenage son or daughter (Coleman, 1974). Families of delinquent or uncontrollable adolescents are characterized by poorer family relationships and less social connectedness. In general, these families are lower on cohesion and independence and higher on conflict and control (Fox et al., 1983). The family environment also affects the academic achievement, which is the product of maturational forces within the adolescent and the experiences provided by the

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environment (Bernard, 1971). Studies of Paul (1996) revealed that there is significant degree of conflict with less cohesion and organization in the emotionally disturbed families.

When adolescent perceive more anger, criticism and arguments in the family their academic performance goes down (Bernard, 1991).

Family environment group is 56.12 and that of low overall family environment group is 49.34, with SD 8.461 and 8.692 respectively. The obtained 't' value is 5.301 and this is found to be significant at .01 level. Thus, it can be inferred that the two groups differ significantly in their academic performance. The mean academic performance score of enriched family environment group is higher than that of low family environment group. It indicates that children with enriched family environment are found to have better academic achievement than those belonging to low family environment group.

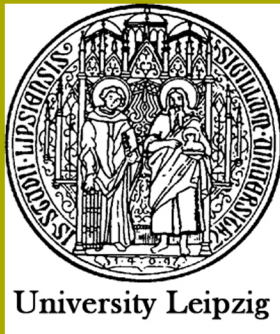
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